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ABSTRACT

This Asian-American Curriculum Guide for the Richmond Unified School District was prepared by a team of teachers and students during the summer of 1972. These materials are related to the United States history textbooks currently in use at the intermediate grade level. Individual lessons are prepared so that they fit into the areas of the textbook where there is a lack of information on Asian American history. However, a large majority of the lessons are self contained. The Guide is prefaced by a general statement of goals and objectives. The lessons are arranged chronologically and topically. Each lesson is prefaced by a page suggesting resources, teaching objectives, and assignments and activities for the lesson. Included in the Guide are supplementary materials: (a) glossary; (b) "The Chinese and Japanese in America; A Bibliography" outlining the achievements and contributions of outstanding Asian-Americans; (c) "The Chinese and Japanese in America: A Chronology"; (d) "Bibliography of Books on Chinese Americans"; (e) "Bibliography of Books and Periodicals on Japanese Americans"; (f) list of books pertaining to Chinese and Japanese available in the Richmond Public Library; and, (g) "Bibliography of Books on Multi-Racial Experience in America". (Author/JM)

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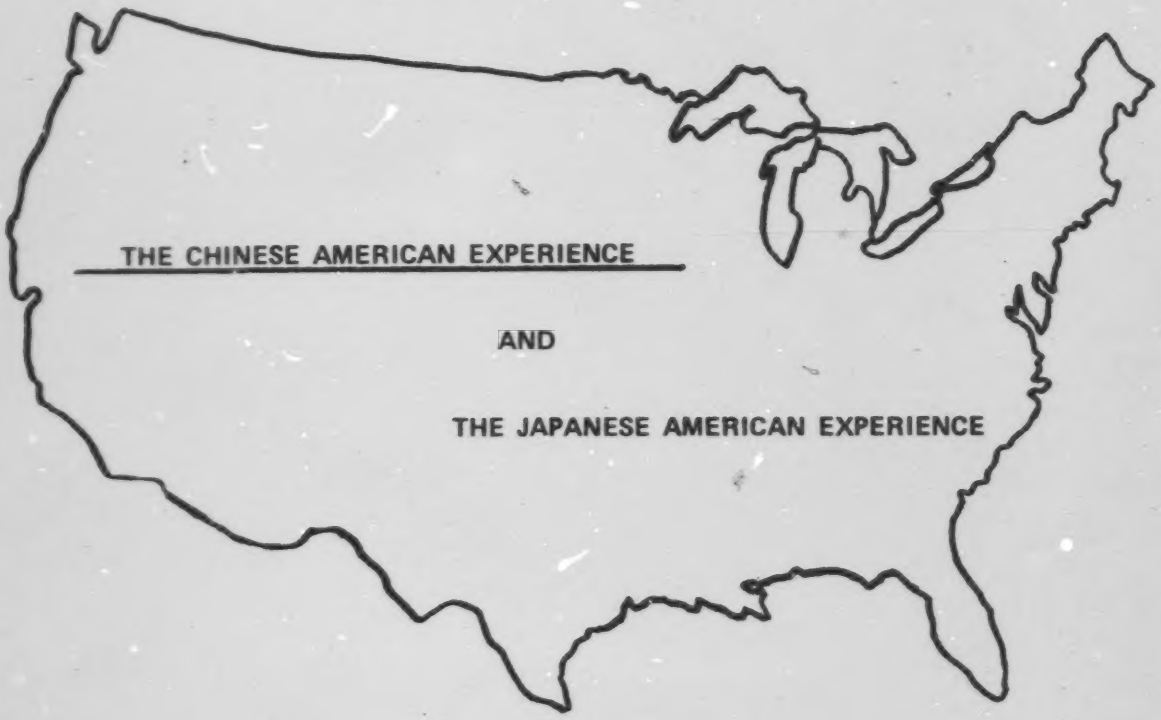
ASIAN AMERICAN STUDIES PROJECT



THE CHINESE AMERICAN EXPERIENCE

AND

THE JAPANESE AMERICAN EXPERIENCE

ELEMENTARY GUIDE

INTERMEDIATE GRADES

UD015264

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RICHMOND UNIFIED SCHOOL DISTRICT

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CURRICULUM PREPARATION

An Asian-American Curriculum Guide for the Richmond Unified School District was prepared by a team of teachers and students during a five-week period in the summer of 1972. The teachers and students who prepared the Guide included:

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1973

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PURPOSE

Traditionally, the course of study for United States history had omitted the significance and influence of persons of Asian ancestry. In order to provide a more realistic view of United States history, the hardships, struggles and contributions of Asians need to be revealed. A quick glance at a typical United States history textbook will show that there is little mention of the role played by Asian Americans in the past and present, although it is widely known that the lives of these people are intertwined in the story of the United States.

This guide provides an opportunity for students and teachers of all racial and ethnic backgrounds to gain a more in-depth perspective of United States history. Students will have a better understanding of other peoples who have made contributions to our society. Hopefully, misunderstandings will be dispelled and positive attitudes and values about Asian Americans will be acquired.

GOALS AND OBJECTIVES

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GOAL 1.0

To provide students with factual and conceptual knowledge related to the idea that anti-Asian prejudice, violence, and discriminations, which has heavily colored Asian-American history, were racially motivated.

Objective 1.1

At least 60 per cent of the students will orally or in writing identify and explain the racial factors involved in the anti-Chinese agitation, violence, and discriminations from the 1840's to the present.

Objective 1.2

At least 60 per cent of the students will orally or in writing identify and explain the racial factors involved in the anti-Japanese agitation, violence, and discriminations from 1900 to the present.

GOAL 2.0

To provide students with factual and conceptual knowledge related to the idea that Asian-Americans have responded to the hostilities of American society by utilizing elements of their Asian cultural heritage.

Objective 2.1

At least 60 per cent of the students will orally or in writing identify and describe those attitudes and values which the Chinese have used to meet the challenges of life in America.

Objective 2.2

At least 60 per cent of the students will orally or in writing identify and describe those attitudes and values which the Japanese have used to meet the challenges of life in America.

GOAL 3.0

To provide students with factual and conceptual knowledge related to the idea that Asian-Americans have responded to prejudice and discrimination with protest.

Objective 3.1

At least 60 per cent of the students will orally or in writing

identify and describe Japanese-American protests against low wages and working conditions in the fields, and in the railroad and mining camps throughout the American West.

Objective 3.2

At least 60 per cent of the students will orally or in writing identify and describe the efforts of Japanese-Americans to protest anti-Japanese agitation prior to World War II and their mass removal during the war.

Objective 3.3

At least 60 per cent of the students will orally or in writing identify and describe the efforts of Chinese-Americans to protest anti-Chinese agitation and discriminatory legislation.

Objective 3.4

At least 60 per cent of the students will orally or in writing identify and describe the efforts of Asian-Americans to support the cause of racial justice in the United States today.

GOAL 4.0

To provide students with factual and conceptual knowledge related to the idea that Asian-Americans have made significant contributions to the economic, political, social, and cultural growth of the United States.

Objective 4.1

At least 60 per cent of the students shall orally or in writing identify and describe the contributions of the Chinese to the development of mining, railroad building, and fishing in the Far West.

Objective 4.2

At least 60 per cent of the students shall orally or in writing identify and describe the contributions of the Japanese to the development of agriculture and floriculture in the western states.

Objective 4.3

At least 60 per cent of the students shall orally or in writing identify and describe the contributions of the Japanese to the growth of labor organization (unionization) in the United States, and especially the unionization of farm workers.

Objective 4.4

At least 60 per cent of the students will orally or in writing

identify and describe the contributions of Asian-Americans to science, architecture, education, and other professions in the United States.

Objective 4.5

At least 60 per cent of the students will orally or in writing identify and describe the contributions of Asian-Americans to furthering the cause of political justice in the United States (e.g., suits demanding full constitutional guarantees of rights and the Japanese-American efforts for the repeal of Title II of the McCarran Act).

HOW TO USE THE ASIAN-AMERICAN CURRICULUM GUIDE

HOW TO USE THE ASIAN-AMERICAN CURRICULUM GUIDE

The Asian-American Studies Curriculum Development Team has prepared a unique guide. It does not propose that a unit on Asian-American studies in the elementary schools be taught in isolation. Instead, the materials contained herein are correlated with the United States history textbooks currently in use at the intermediate grade level. Individual lessons are prepared so that they fit into the areas of the textbook where there is a lack of information on Asian American history. However, at the same time, a large majority of the lessons are self-contained so that they need not be used with any particular textbook.

The Guide is prefaced by a general statement of goals and objectives which teachers should attempt to achieve with respect to Asian American history in their United States history program. The lessons are arranged chronologically and topically. The teacher may present the lessons in the sequence suggested by the Table of Contents of this Guide or according to the topic cited in each lesson heading.

Each lesson is prefaced by a page suggesting (a) Resources; (b) Teaching Objectives; (c) Assignments and Activities for the lesson.

Included in the Guide are other materials which the teacher or student might find useful and enhancing: (a) Glossary; (b) The Chinese and Japanese in America: A Biography outlining the achievements and contributions of outstanding Asian-Americans; (c) The Chinese and Japanese in America: A Chronology; (d) Bibliography of Books on Chinese Americans; (e) Bibliography of Books and Periodicals on Japanese Americans; (f) List of books pertaining to Chinese and Japanese available in the Richmond Public Library, (g) Bibliography of Books on Multi-Racial Experience in America.

This initial guide on Asian American studies relates only to the Chinese and Japanese experience in the United States. However, the District anticipates that the experience of other Asian groups in the United States, namely, the Koreans and Filipinos, will be documented in subsequent curriculum writing projects.

This guide is prepared on an experimental basis and is subject to revision.

CHINESE

ASIAN AMERICAN STUDIES

LESSON ONE: THE FIRST PEOPLE TO AMERICA

RESOURCES

- The Story of California, Chapter 3, pp. 36-37.
- Voices of the Californians, Teachers' Edition, pp. 46-48; pp. 22-28.
- FS: The American Indian, Part I. Warren Schloat Productions.

TEACHING OBJECTIVES

Cognitive level: Students learn that the nomadic hunters from Asia, as individuals and in groups, precede the arrival of Columbus and earlier, the Norsemen, perhaps as long ago as 50,000 B.C. and certainly by 20,000 B.C.

Students review the words "migration," "continent," and "inhabitant" from earlier readings.

Students will design and construct a migration route map.

Affective level: An awareness of a misconception of fact regarding early exploration and discovery.

An appreciation of a new understanding that "THE FIRST PEOPLE CAME FROM ASIA."

Excitement in dealing with a great expanse of time . . . going back to prehistoric man and animals.

A satisfying sense of accomplishment in a visible and attractive end-product of study.

A reinforced sense of worth as a student, a class member, and a human being.

INTRODUCING THE LESSON

( ) Teacher: Test students' understandings of early explorers, sailing routes, and lands of discovery or exploration by asking, "What explorers can anyone in the class name and what lands did they discover or explore?"

( ) Focusing question: "What early explorers touched upon or set foot in America?"
Essential response: "Christopher Columbus."

( ) Focusing question: "About 500 years before Columbus came to the New World, a group of sailors reached the New World and named their discovery "Vinland" after the wild grapes they saw growing there. Can anyone tell me who these men were or what the name of their leader was?"
Essential response: Norsemen, sailors from Norway, or Leif Ericson, Leif the Lucky.

( ) Related information: Leif Ericson arrived in the New World around 1000 A.D. That's 972 years ago! But he still was not the first man to set foot in the New World! We must go back in our imagination more than 25,000 years ago when the first people came to North America. Like the other explorers the first people to North America discovered this land by accident. They were the first people to this part of the world because scientists can find no evidence that early man originated, or developed, in either North or South America. We are now going to investigate where the first people to North America came from, how they came to this part of the world, and why.

DEVELOPING THE LESSON

( ) Teacher/students: Read, in any form suitable for your class (individual quiet, teacher read, group reading, oral) The Story of California (basic text), pp. 36-37.
Discuss and emphasize the fact that:

1. the first people came from Asia

2. they were hunters following food animals
3. following food animals, the first people crossed over from Asia to Alaska by way of an ice or land "bridge"
4. the first people walked this distance on foot
5. they were followed by larger groups of people or by family groups
6. they eventually after many thousands of years reached the southern tip of South America, and spread throughout North and South America

( ) Teacher: Identify key land masses on wall map: Asia, North America, South America, Bering Strait.

( ) Teacher/students: Infer probable migration route by tracing route on wall map. Ask for student verification from several called students . . . "Do you agree . . . Is there another possible route . . . Does his route agree with what we know already about these first people?"

( ) Teacher/students: Map construction and design procedures:

1. Teacher: Trace the attached maps of Asia (Siberia), North America (Alaska, Canada, USA, Mexico, Central America), and South America on white drawing paper, using a ditto carbon. Ditto classroom quantities; one set per student.
2. Students: Color each continental land mass (Asia, North America, South America) a different distinguishing color.
3. cut out each land area.
4. on blue paper (18 x 24) piece together cut-out parts to resemble land forms on wall map or text, page 23.
5. using black construction or any dark construction paper, draw and cut out small footprints.
6. paste footprints to suggest possible route taken by Asians to North and South America.
7. title the map with an original sentence or one from the text.
8. display finished map on class bulletin board.

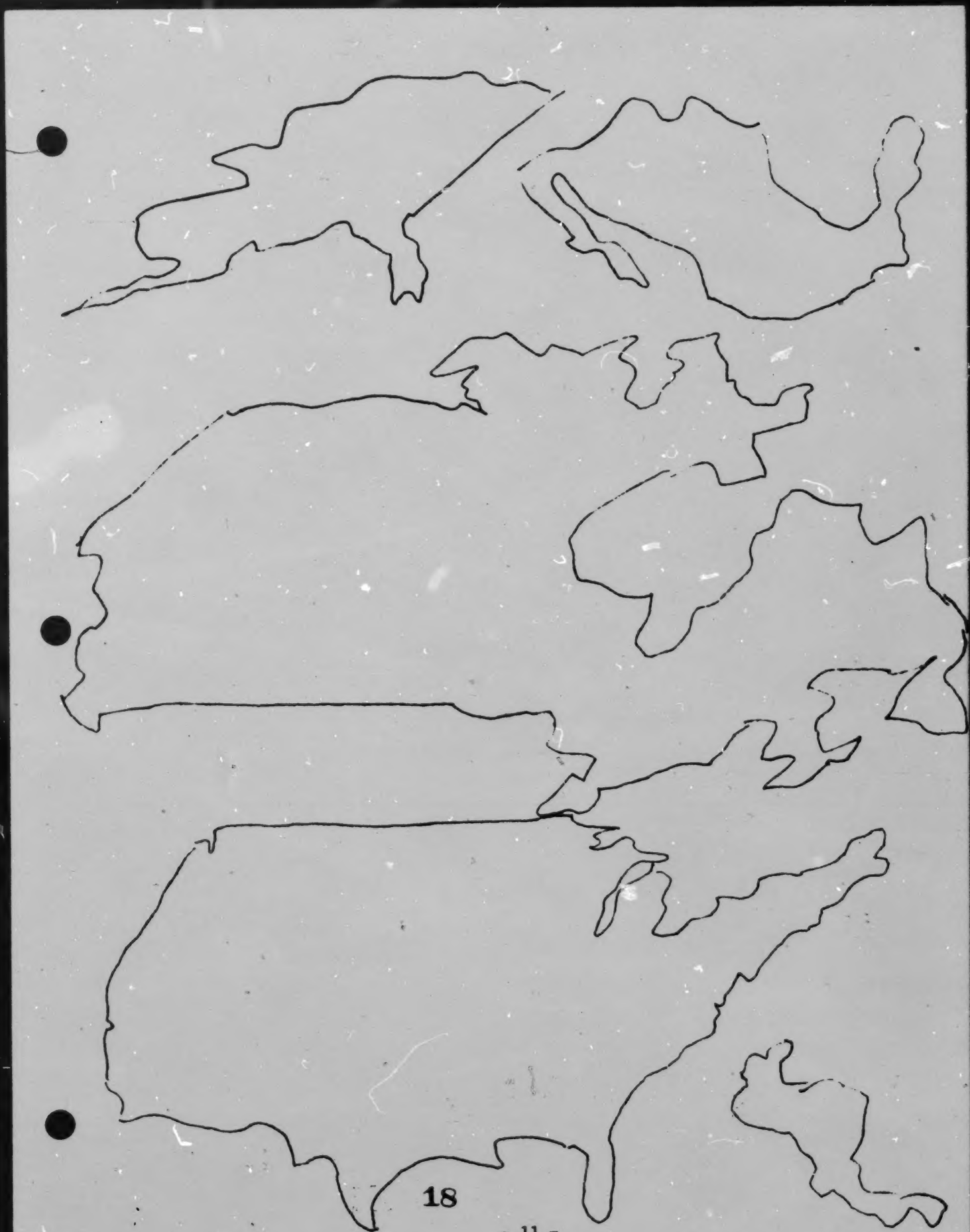
( ) Students: Write descriptive paragraph based on their perceptions gained from reading and map design. Display these beside/on the finished map for each student.

ALTERNATIVE EXPERIENCES FOR A VARIETY OF INTERESTS/ABILITIES

( ) Relief map made from salt and flour or papier mache. Identify migration route in any imaginative way.

( ) Voices of the Californians, pp. 24-25. Read, write questions (page 24) and best answers, or describe picture symbols of map on page 25 in words.

( ) Research: What food animals might the hunters have followed from Asia to North America? Draw them. How would you kill a large prehistoric animal for food?



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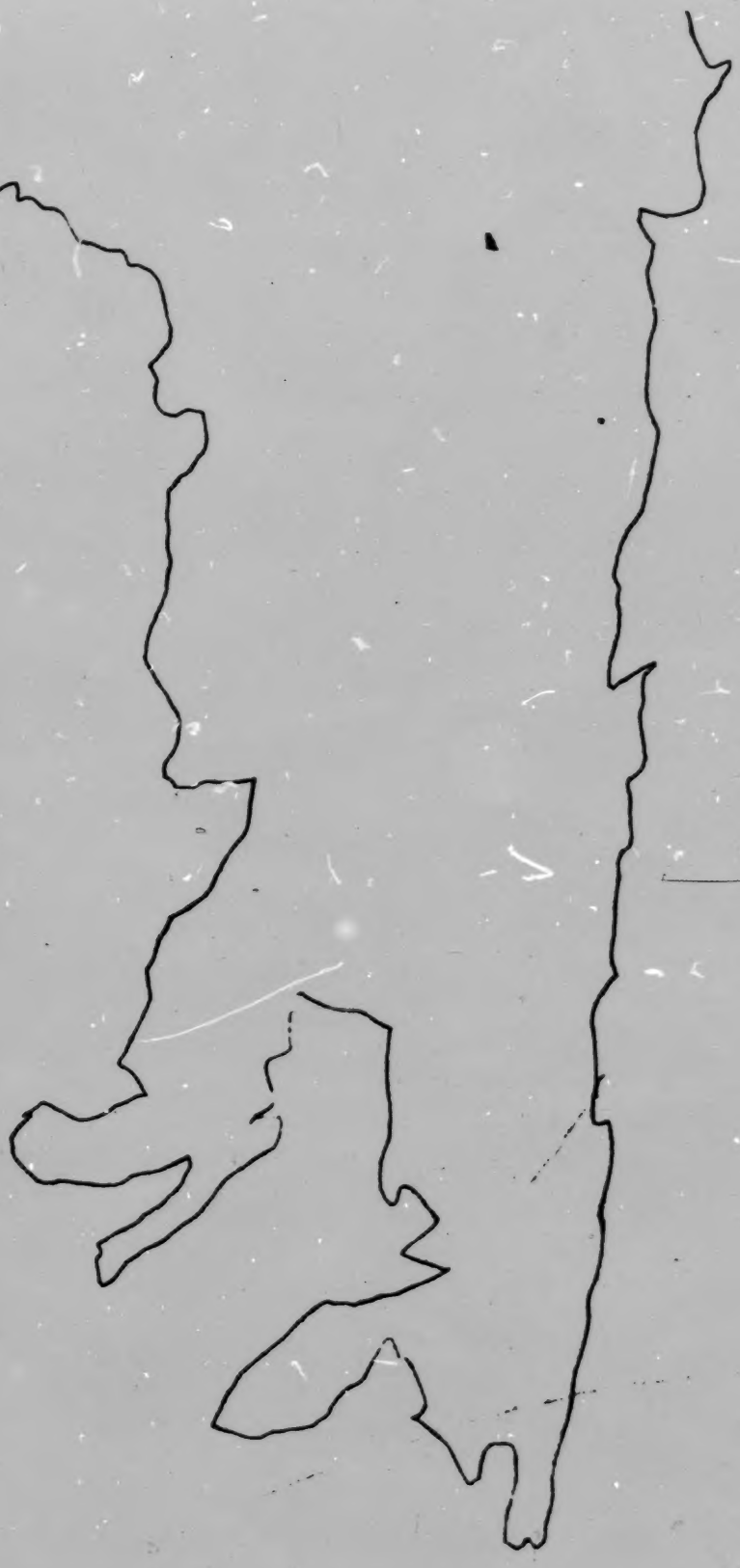

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LESSON TWO: "AN ASIAN AMERICAN IS..." CHINESE CONTRIBUTIONS TO THE WESTERN WORLD

RESOURCES

- The Story of California, Chapter 5, pp. 58-59.
- Voices of Change, pp. 44-45, 49.
- Voices of the Californians, p. 27.
- Wiese, Kurt. The Chinese Knew.

TEACHING OBJECTIVES

Cognitive level: Students will learn to distinguish Asians and Asian Americans from visual photographs.

Class will define an Asian American from his physical characteristics.

Students will make inferences as to what "An Asian American is . . . "

Student understandings that "valuable goods came from Asia."

Students will learn of China's many inventions and contributions, which were borrowed by the Western World.

Affective level: Students will develop new awareness, perceptions and sensitivities of what an Asian is.... from his physical appearance to the ingenuity and inventiveness of his contributions to the Western World.

Positive feelings of group interaction are fostered in work committees.

INTRODUCING THE LESSON

( ) Teacher: Recall and review previous lesson dealing with the first people to North and South America. Complete assigned work from that lesson. Ask for any volunteers who might read or summarize facts from their descriptive report on their map design.

( ) Teacher/students: Begin analysis of what an Asian looks like racially. Study and direct class to examine photo on page 19 of basic text (Chinese). Better photographs are in Voices of Change.

( ) Teacher: Characterize physical features of Asian faces and chart students' responses:

Hair	black, straight hair
Eyebrows	
Eyes	almond-shaped, brown eyes
Nose	flat, somewhat broad
Mouth	firm, full
Cheek bones	high
Ears	
Chin	
Skin color	varies from ivory-honey-dark brown

( ) Students: Study photos of Native Americans (American Indians). See page 15, The Story of California; page 39, Voices of the Californians; pages 22-23, Voices of Change.

( ) Teacher/students: Characterize Native American features in a retrieval chart, as above.

( ) Students: Study photos of Eskimos. Focus on page 27, Voices of the Californians and page 16, Voices of Change.

( ) Teacher/students: Characterize Eskimo features. Chart, as before.

( ) Teacher/students: Now, direct class to study all three chart data:

1. Are there any common features for Asians, Native Americans, and Eskimos?

Essential response: . . . hair . . . eyes . . . nose . . . cheekbones . . . skin color.

2. Did the Native American or the Eskimo appear more "related" to the Chinese in appearance?

Essential response: The Eskimo.

3. If the Chinese, the Native American, and the Eskimo look somewhat alike, can you think of some common sense reason why this may be true?

Essential response: All of them originally came from Asia.

( ) Students: Allow students to transcribe chart form to paper or notebook.

( ) Teacher: Read to the class Kurt Wiese: The Chinese Knew, an excellent resource of China's inventions.

( ) Teacher: List as many inventions from China as class can recall from oral reading above.

( ) Teacher/class: Classify the inventions as to some commonality and chart for subsequent reference:

Foods

Art forms

Ornaments

Tools or implements

Cloth

Medicine

etc.

( ) Teacher: Sketch roughly a large sized map outline of China on roll butcher paper.

( ) Teacher: Divide the class into as many categories as there are on chart above. Direct them to prepare a summary card (5x8") listing all the inventions in their category.

( ) Students: Discuss, "brainstorm," and record inventions as above. Select one committee member to attach card to outside border of map outline of China; use yarn or string to relate card to China.

( ) Teacher/class: Display finished informational map on bulletin board for independent study and reference.

EVALUATION

- Do you get "vibrations" that the class is building up momentum and enthusiasm for the planned activities in Asian American Studies?
- Has there been a greater need to pay attention, become involved than previously?
- Do students seem to grasp directions and follow through more readily than before?
- Is their information-gathering process accurate in the end?

ALTERNATIVE EXPERIENCES FOR A VARIETY OF INTERESTS/ABILITIES

Select one or more of the attached inventions and suggested activities. Be prepared to "show-and-tell."

LECSON THREE: THE "PUSH" AND "PULL" OF MIGRATION, CALIFORNIA GOLD RUSH ERA

RESOURCES

- Study Sheet: "Where Did All the People Come From?"
- The Story of California, Chapter 16, pp. 166-175.
- Voices of Change, pp. 36-40, pp. 68-71.
- Voices of the Californians, pp. 164-169.

TEACHING OBJECTIVES

Cognitive level: Natural catastrophes and social crimes provided the incentives for emigration to California during the California Gold Rush (the "push" effect).

Many nationalities were represented in the California gold fields.

Gold was the singular lure for hundreds of thousands of people coming to California (the "pull" effect).

Chinese came to California as "sojourners," the temporary resident or as a stranger in a place; subsequently, returning to China the richer man.

Affective level: For any migrant group, the leaving of one's birthplace and homeland is an emotional experience.

A student appreciation of world conditions and situations in the mid-1800's which facilitated emigration to California and the United States.

A realization that California took within its borders hundreds of thousands of new residents, from many different parts of the world, with a multiplicity of customs, cultures, and values.

Student understandings that the Chinese came to California as "sojourners" (temporary residents) rather than as immigrants.

Continuing feelings of student success in dealing with social science and Asian American Studies.

INTRODUCING THE LESSON

( ) Take a class inventory of their birthplace (the place of residence of their parents at the time of the student's birth) by forming visible groupings in the classroom, as follows:

1. class members born in the cities served by the Richmond Unified School District.
2. children born in other sections of California.
3. students born in other cities in the United States, including Hawaii and Alaska.
4. students born in a foreign country.

( ) Set class understandings that this is to demonstrate the mobility of the American people and the small influx of foreign immigrants into the country. The groupings will also illustrate the idea of "percentage" (mathematics) which is important in understanding the student study sheet.

( ) Compute percent of students in each category above at the chalkboard and chart information:

$$\frac{X}{Y} \times 100 = \%$$

where x equals number of children
y equals number of students in class

( ) Expand "percentage" into number of people per 100 and further chart this information on the chalkboard:

"If there are 3 class members born in Hong Kong and Formosa, they would be 10% of the whole class. This also means that if there were 100 people lined up in a straight line, 10% or 10 of those 100 people would be foreign-born."

( ) Work with the students in developing percentage figures for all of the four groupings above and record their number figures in a folder of student work, or notebook. (Folder is preferred).

( ) Class opener: 65% to 75% of the people who came to California during the Gold Rush period came from other parts of the United States. Twenty-five percent to thirty-five percent of the goldseekers came from other foreign countries. We are going to discover . . . WHERE DID ALL THE PEOPLE COME FROM? . . . and some of the reasons why they left their native homes and lands, other than to seek gold in California.

DEVELOPING THE LESSON

( ) Distribute the attached student study sheet, typed and dittoed in class quantities, to each student. Teacher will decide what reading method would be best information-seeking process:

1. teacher-read exercise
2. individual student reading
3. public reading by selected students
4. small group reading

( ) Review reading for information by: (either/or)

1. map study of place names
2. vocabulary study
3. paragraph themes
4. visualizing percentage figures in terms of number of people
5. charting logical, relative information
6. discussing "thought" questions which accompany reading lesson

Sample of chart form:

WHY PEOPLE CAME TO CALIFORNIA DURING THE GOLD RUSH

	find gold	lack of jobs	lack of food	adventure	problems of government
Americans	x			x	
Mexicans	x				
Chileans	x				
English	x	x	x		x
Chinese	x	x	x		x

( ) Develop the meaning of the word "sojourner" as it applied to the Chinese coming to California.

1. break up the word "sojourner" to be:

dictionary definition of "sojourn" + suffix "er"

or

dictionary definition of "sojourn" + "a person who."

EVALUATION

( ) Did the students exhibit some signs of empathy for the plight of peoples in traveling the great distances to reach California, the home environment of disasters and unrest?

( ) Were the students successful in understanding "numbers" as applied to people?

( ) Was there an understanding that the Gold Rush in California resulted in a gathering of many races and nationalities?

ALTERNATIVE EXPERIENCES FOR A VARIETY OF INTERESTS/ABILITIES

( ) Show and discuss FS, "Golden Gate to the West."

( ) Research and report on either/or of the land and sea routes to California from the eastern United States. Illustrate report with map routes, distance scales, geographical features, etc.

( ) Devise a skit on any of the experiences of the emigrant groups, with imagination as the resource tool. Devise committee groups to critique authenticity, logical sequence, acting, emotional impact, etc.

( ) Practice writing of large numerals and spellings of nationalities:

"225,000"
"15,000 people in California"
"100,000 miners"
"25,000 Chinese"
"5,000 Chileans"

( ) List and write names of countries and its citizens:

COUNTRY	CITIZENS
British Isles	English
Chile	Chileans
China	Chinese

( ) Contrive some mathematical formula which would add up to a state census figure of 225,000 people in California in 1852:

225,000 people = 100,000 Americans + 25,000 Chinese + 5,000 Chileans + "several thousand" French, etc.

My name is _____ Date _____

WHERE DID ALL THE PEOPLE COME FROM?

1. How many people were living in California, other than Indians, in 1848?

2. What was the count in the 1852 census?

3. From what foreign countries did many of the California gold seekers come?

4. Of the 225,000 people in California in 1852, how many were Chinese?

****

In the spring of 1848 there were less than 15,000 people in California, not counting the Indians. A state census in 1852, just four years later, revealed that the population had shot up to 225,000.

About 65% to 75% of the Gold Rush population came from other parts of the United States - from the eastern states and about one-third from the southern states.

The rest of the gold seekers came from outside the United States. During the first two or three years of the gold rush, the most numerous were from Latin America. Mexicans and Chileans (from Chile in South America) were among the first to hear of the gold discovery in California and swarmed northward to find their fortune. An estimated 5,000 Chileans arrived in California during the first six months of 1849, and the number of Mexicans even higher.

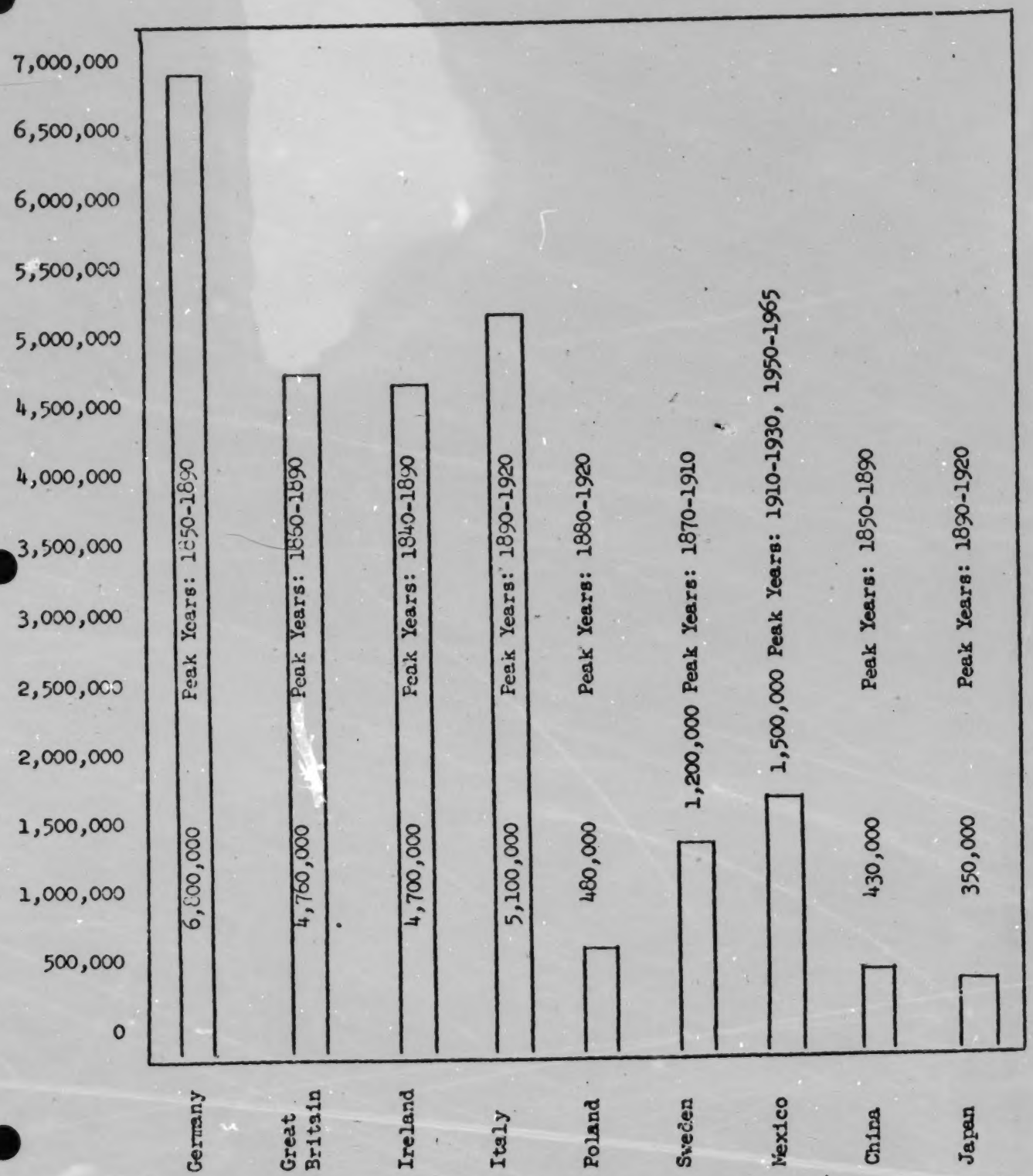
Of the European countries, the British Isles produced the greatest number of gold seekers. A potato famine, lack of jobs and other problems at home forced the English, Scots, Irish and Welsh to give up their homes and make the long journey to California.

The second greatest contributor of fortune hunters to California was Germany. France, too, lost several thousand citizens to the Gold Rush. A few thousand Swedes, Danes and Finns joined the mass migration.

The Chinese got a late start, but quickly made up for lost time. In 1850, when the Europeans and Latin Americans were coming in great numbers, the number of Chinese in California was only 600. By 1852, there were 25,000 Chinese scattered throughout the mining towns and fields of the state.

The Japanese did not participate in the Gold Rush as so many others had done. They were strictly forbidden to leave Japan under penalty of death.

U.S. IMMIGRATION BY COUNTRY 1820-1968
(from: From Many Lands, by Alberta Eiseman, page 211.)



LESSON FOUR: BY LAND AND BY SEA . . . GOLD! GOLD IN CALIFORNIA!

RESOURCES

- The Story of California, Chapter 16, pp. 166-175.
- Voices of Change, pp. 38-40.
- Voices of the Californians, pp. 163-169.
- FS: Golden Gate to the West.

TEACHING OBJECTIVES

Cognitive level:

Learning of land and sea routes to California during the Gold Rush.

Comparing and contrasting distances between departure and arrival stations.

Gaining insight into hardships and difficulties of transportation in the 1800's.

Ability to draw a "sailing ship" of the day.

Constructing a retrieval chart for understanding and reference.

Affective level:

A respectful awareness of the great distances involved in travel to California.

Student concern for the hardships, difficulties, and dangers encountered by emigrants to the gold fields of California.

An imaginative awakening of the spirit of adventure in a distant port.

Student appreciation for human relations and inter-personal planning to get an assignment completed.

Reinforced sense of accomplishment in working individually and with a group of peers.

INTRODUCING THE LESSON

( ) Teacher: Direct the class to skim the picture illustrations in referenced texts. Ask that students look in depth at each picture, noting as many details as possible. Provide time limit of no more than ten minutes. Inform class that there will be a "seeing" quiz to determine how well each student "sees" a picture in the text for details and information.

( ) Teacher: Design an objective quiz beforehand based on observable content or details in the illustrations.

1. Name one imaginary means of transportation to California in the cartoon picture in this chapter. (The Story of California, p. 167.)
2. What was one way of traveling by land to the gold fields of California? (Voices of the Californians, p. 169.)
3. Describe the route that a sailing ship would take from an eastern port, like Boston, Massachusetts, to San Francisco. (Voices of Change, p. 39.)
4. etc.

( ) Teacher/class: Administer the quiz; correct by examining source illustration in text. Expand by discussing other student observations in each picture. This may well be done by small study groups, each focused on one specific illustration and reporting their "findings" in turn.

( ) Class: Report your findings in either written or spoken form. For a focus of attention, project text illustration on a screen by means of an opaque projector.

( ) Teacher/class: Summarize new perceptions of overland and sea travel to California.

DEVELOPING THE LESSON

( ) For a comparative study of distances involved in the three routes to the gold fields, organize the class into possibly 5-6 work committees:

1. a committee to trace political map outline of China/Asia, North and South America. Use opaque projector to expedite map outline on butcher paper. Color and cut out; paste on butcher paper. Maintain same scale dimensions for all continents.
2. a work committee to research overland route from Arkansas-Kansas-Missouri area to Sacramento/San Francisco.
3. a committee to investigate a sea/land route from New York City to San Francisco, via Panama.
4. a committee of students looking into a sea route from New York City to San Francisco, around the southern tip of South America (Cape Horn).
5. a committee to locate Canton, China and to plot an ocean route from Canton to San Francisco.
6. a committee to measure distances for each of these routes to the gold fields and to log the measurements in chart form.

( ) Students: Work committees will be working simultaneously, with the exception of committee 6 above. Each travel committee must know:

1. location of departure and destination ports/cities.
2. line of travel from point to point as shown in student text/texts.
3. spelling of placenames on maps.
4. traveler and natural dangers, difficulties, discomforts of that route and mode of transportation.
5. approximate number of days/months incurred in travel.
6. any unique or unusual people or events that marked the journey.

( ) Teacher/students: When map construction committee (committee #1) has completed their map, all travel committees will:

1. trace a white glue path from the departure station to their planned destination. To this, affix a colored yarn/string so that the route is visible.
2. report on the significance of the route in written and oral form.
3. provide the opportunity for class question-and-answer period.

( ) Teacher/students: Work committee #6 above, to measure distances, will then cut an equal length of string to correspond with the yarn/string pasted on the map and measure it to the scale of distance for the map. Measured distances for each of the routes will be tabulated in chart form for ready reference on the bulletin board and/or transcribing into student folder /notebook.

( ) Students: Write a summarizing statement on comparative distances and characteristic difficulties for any one of the routes.

( ) Volunteer committee: Mount individual committee reports on the map and decorate attractively with side pictures of covered wagons, mounted horsemen, sailing ships, men walking, etc. Label map; title.

( ) Pin completed map on class bulletin board for reference and visual impact.

EVALUATION

- Are verbal responses organized and incisive?
- Is there an expressed or visible empathy for physical discomforts and dangers faced by the forty-niners?
- Are written responses more immediate and meaningful?
- Were committee assignments understood and carried out by each member?
- Are students learning to spell placenames and vocabulary words with more certainty and ease?
- Is there continuing enthusiasm and interest and is it involving more students in your class?

ALTERNATIVE EXPERIENCES FOR A VARIETY OF INTERESTS/ABILITIES

( ) Teacher/students: Trace attached sailing vessel ("Clipper Ship") on ditto carbon and reproduce on white art paper. Distribute to interested students, who will color ship according to textbook illustration. Cut out and mount on colored construction paper or draw background, then paste ship to it. Label and use for bulletin board display.

( ) Students: Read "Thinking About Chapter 16," The Story of California. Select any activity and complete it for teacher/class sharing.

( ) Students: Write a short diary letter of seven days total, which may not be consecutive. Describe the mode of transportation and your personal experiences and feelings.

( ) Teacher/students: Investigate songs of the Gold Rush era. Prepare a songfest booklet, organize a classroom choral group, tape-record songs and sing them as a collective class activity.

GOLDEN GATE TO THE WEST (A filmstrip study lesson)

INSTRUCTIONS: Read the sentence to each filmstrip picture, listen to the discussion, study the picture carefully for important details, and write in the missing word to complete the sentence on this study sheet. Be prepared to discuss orally the important facts learned.

(1) On January 24, _____, John Marshall, while building a mill for Sutter's California settlement, discovered _____. (2) In the rush that followed, Sutter's Fort and his community were deserted. His land was settled by _____. (3) When the news reached San Francisco, a sleepy village of adobe huts, the men left to go to the _____. It took _____ months for the news to reach New York. At first it caused little excitement.

(4) President Polk's message to Congress in December, _____, touched off the greatest _____ in history. All over the world people formed California companies and headed for the gold fields. (5) More than _____ reached California in _____. They came by land and by sea. By _____ there were so many that California was admitted as a state of the Union.

(6) The forty-niners found the overland routes to the west well established, especially the Oregon and Santa Fe Trails. Some sailed by river boat to a

jumping-off place for an overland trail. Thousands traveled in _____. They suffered heat and thirst in the deserts, and hard passage in the snowy mountains. (7) Some traveled the southern route. They left their wagons behind to make the dangerous march through Death Valley. (8) Some southern routes hurried north through _____ _____ to the gold fields. (9) Many forty-niners made an all-sea trip by way of Cape Horn. Others sailed to _____, traveled overland to the Pacific, and caught a boat to San Francisco.

(10) The steamer trip to Panama was the _____, if good connections were made. (11) Crossing the Isthmus of Panama involved _____ miles of river and old Spanish trails. The trip took _____ days. (12) Overland to Panama City was a muddy journey on foot or on muleback. (13) At Panama City the forty-niners crowded into steamers bound for San Francisco. (14) Many of the unseaworthy boats that were pressed into service met with _____. (15) The most expensive way to travel was by _____ around Cape Horn.

(16) This historic photograph shows the harbor at San Francisco. The ships jammed mast to mast, were left to rot by crews who went to mine gold. (17) Ships

were converted to _____ and _____.

(18) Merchants, not miners, built San Francisco into a city. In _____ it was a boom town. (19) In one year the forty-niners built Sutter's Fort into Sacramento City.

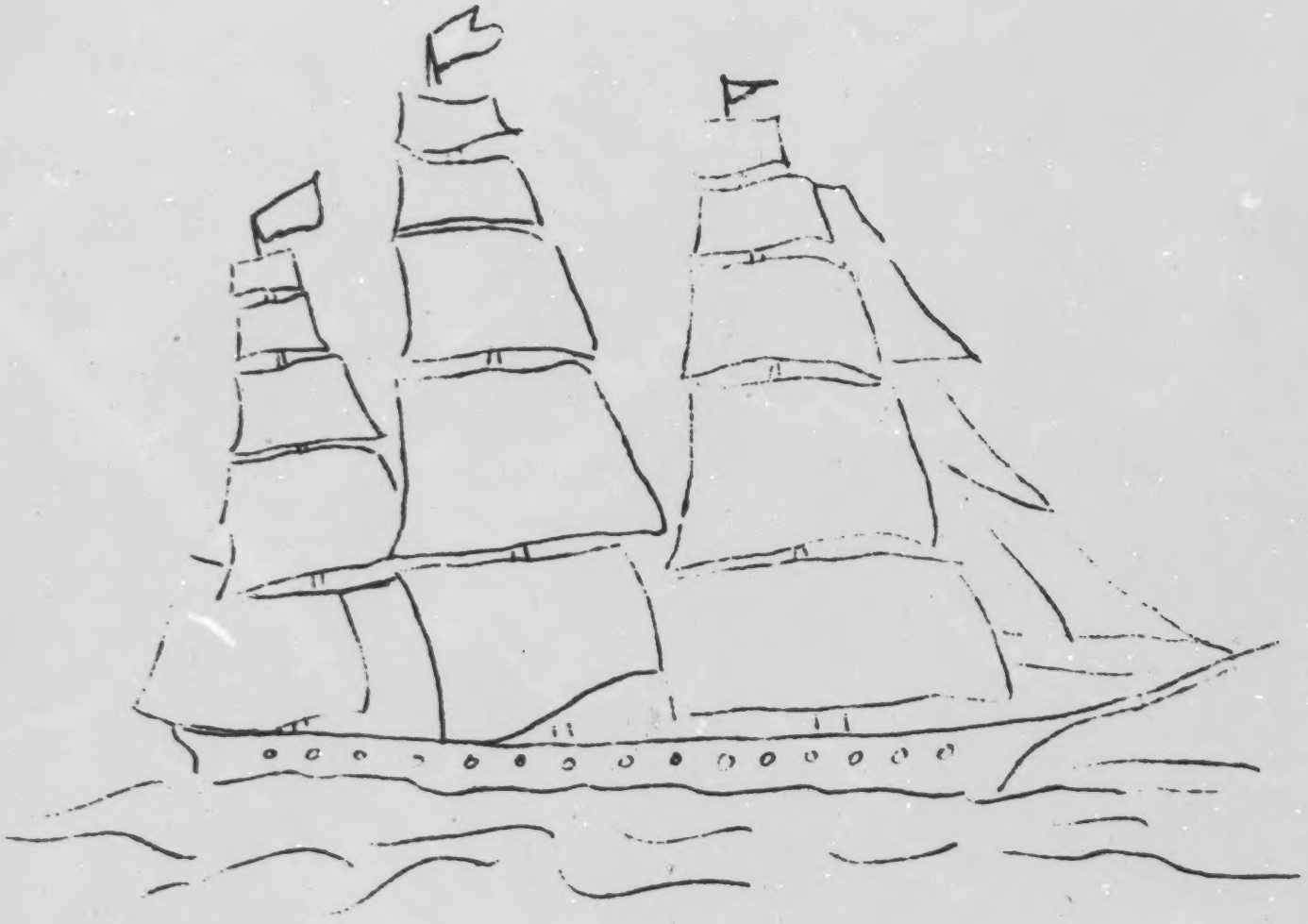
(20) Supplies were carried to the mines by mule train. Marysville had _____ mules. (21) Most miners used crude equipment. (22) Though crowded together the miners were _____. They eagerly awaited news from home at the San Francisco Post Office. (23) Streets were bad, and living was high. They waded through the San Francisco mud to pay $ _____ a dozen for _____. (24) A woman was a rare and welcome sight. (25) One Saturday night diversion was a rowdy miners' dance. (26) On weekends they turned their gold into _____.

(27) By _____ the gold supply was dwindling. Many struck out for new mines. (28) Some stayed to _____. They took advantage of the public land laws. (29) Many subscribed to the Alta California, a _____ edited by Bret Harte, and contributed to by Mark Twain. (30) The trans-continental _____ brought many more settlers to California. (31) The Palace Hotel was built in _____. San Francisco had many famous visitors, one was Robert Louis Stevenson in 1879. (32) San Francisco became

a city of contrast. Here is fashionable Nob Hill in 1890.

(33) The earthquake of _____ marked the end of an era. The glitter and other signs of the boom days were wiped out.

(34) San Francisco was rebuilt into a city of many cultural activities. It boasts the only city-supported opera in the U.S. In Golden Gate Park, one of the beauty spots of the world, are modern museums. The city has the largest _____ settlement outside the Orient. Its fine harbor attracts Pacific trade. (35) The gold was drained from the mines, but gold was found in California's _____. (36) There is "gold" in her _____. (37) There are many attractions for settlers. California continues to expand faster than any other state in the Union.



Student Study Sheet 2: Lesson 4

LESSON FIVE: THE CHINESE IN GOLD RUSH COUNTRY

RESOURCES

- The Story of California, Chapter 17, pp. 176-183.
- Voices of the Californians, pp. 166-167.
- Voices of Change, pp. 46-47.
- Student Study Sheet.
- Audio-Visual Materials: 6012 Ghost Towns in High Sierras (movie)
  0945 Placer Gold (movie)

TEACHING OBJECTIVES

Cognitive level: Learned locations of gold mining areas in California.

Locating and recalling selected mining camps and towns with a Chinese population.

Practical experience in one form of gold mining.

Affective level: Realization that such a comparatively small portion of the state supported the large, mixed number of goldseekers.

Developed interest and curiosity in Gold Rush placenames, their locations, and historical interest.

INTRODUCING THE LESSON

( ) Teacher/students: For background information, read the texts available to your class and the questions at the end of the chapter, or on the page. See RESOURCES above.

( ) Teacher/students: Review or study the route maps to the California gold fields in student folders or on bulletin boards. Emphasize: one of the first hardships encountered by the goldseekers was . . . just getting to California!

( ) Teacher: Focus attention to a map of California. Plastic raised relief map is best for the "feel" of land forms and its easy viewing by class. Locate the great chain of volcanic mountain ranges that border the Pacific shores of North and South America. Point out the Sierra Nevada range in California. Encourage students to "feel" the contour forms and to state a descriptive sentence of their discovery.

( ) Teacher: Locate placenames familiar to students on the wall map, or encourage individual students to locate cities and towns that they experienced. Emphasize sites of:

1. San Francisco
2. Sacramento
3. Stockton
4. Lake Tahoe
5. Reno
6. Los Angeles
7. Fresno
8. Auburn

DEVELOPING THE LESSON

( ) Teacher: Distribute commercial desk map of California to each student. Insert attached California mining camp map into opaque projector, if available, or ditto and distribute to students. Direct students to see and hear selected placenames as teacher pronounces them and points them out. Students should repeat names for reinforcement of learning.

( ) Teacher: Repeat process above relating placenames to some known landmark in the student's mind - San Francisco, Sacramento, Truckee, Lake Tahoe, Shasta Lake, Yosemite National Park, etc. - as in the example, "Directly north of Sacramento is the location of the mining camp . . ."

( ) Teacher/students: Working careful, name, locate and mark mining camps that housed a Chinese population, starting with San Francisco as a point of reference:

1. The Southern Mines

- Oakhurst
- Coursegold
- Mariposa
- Hornitos
- Bear Valley
- Coulterville
- Chinese Camp
- Sonora
- Columbia
- Springfield

2. The Central Mother Lode

- Angels Camp
- San Andreas
- Camp Seco
- Mokelumne Hill
- West Point
- Volcano
- Buena Vista
- Fiddletown
- Placerville
- Coloma

3. The Northern Mines

- Auburn
- Michigan Bluff
- Dutch Flat
- Grass Valley
- Nevada City
- Oroville
- Weaverville
- Shasta

( ) Teacher: Read from Sunset Travel Book, Gold Rush Country, New Edition, c. May 1972, interesting tid-bits of information to motivate students to seek information on their own.

( ) Students: In marking mining camps, use location numbers (①, ②, ③, etc.) on the map and write placenames on reverse side of same sheet.

( ) Students: Color map lightly in one, bright color. Label map appropriately. Keep in folder or for bulletin board display. Refer to map frequently in studying Gold Rush period of California history.

( ) Teacher: Devise a series of teacher-directed or self-learning, self-testing study sheets for students:

1. matching placenames to site numbers.
2. marking blank ditto maps as teacher calls placename.
3. spelling contest of names of gold mining camps.
4. sorting out placenames as to "Southern Mines," "Central Mother Lode," or "Northern Mines."
5. making a gold miner's itinerary from the Southern Mines to the Northern Mines; a gold-seeking trip in any one sector.
6. etc.

EVALUATION

- Is the level of student inquiry specific and to-the-point?
- Did the students follow rather difficult geographical ideas with some ease of understanding?
- Are students "testing" well on self-testing study sheets?

ALTERNATIVE EXPERIENCES FOR A VARIETY OF INTERESTS/ABILITIES

( ) Write answers to text questions; do suggested activities at end of chapter.

( ) Pan gold as a practical learning experience:

1. Purchase 1-2 sacks of sand from lumber yards or Montgomery Ward; 1-2 pails of small gravel rock.
2. Spray paint gravel rock with gold paint and let dry.
3. Mix sand and gold gravel mix into "large" cardboard carton in classroom. Better to have 2-3 cardboard cartons to contain sand-gravel mix. Gravel to bottom of carton.
4. Using ten inch tin pie pans, have students sift sand to find the gold gravel.
5. Place time limit for each student to sift and move sand in carton; 15-30 seconds.
6. Students keep all the gold "nuggets" they find in the allotted time.
7. Students may make a nugget pouch out of sewn cloth, with a tie string.
8. Mathematical lessons of weighing gold "nuggets" in ounces and multiplying its weight by $18-20 an ounce can give added feelings of realism.
9. Write a diary report of students' diggings; a student skit of the lucky find of a "glory hole."
10. Students report on the probable effects on the body and mind of panning for gold 12-14 hours a day.

( ) Make a large-size mural of a gold mining scene, using an opaque projector for a line tracing. (See The Story of California, pp. 180-181.)

( ) Diorama-tize a gold mining scene using a cardboard carton for a "stage."

( ) Assign diary-keeping for a period of 1-2 weeks. Refer to text reading for specific information or library books.

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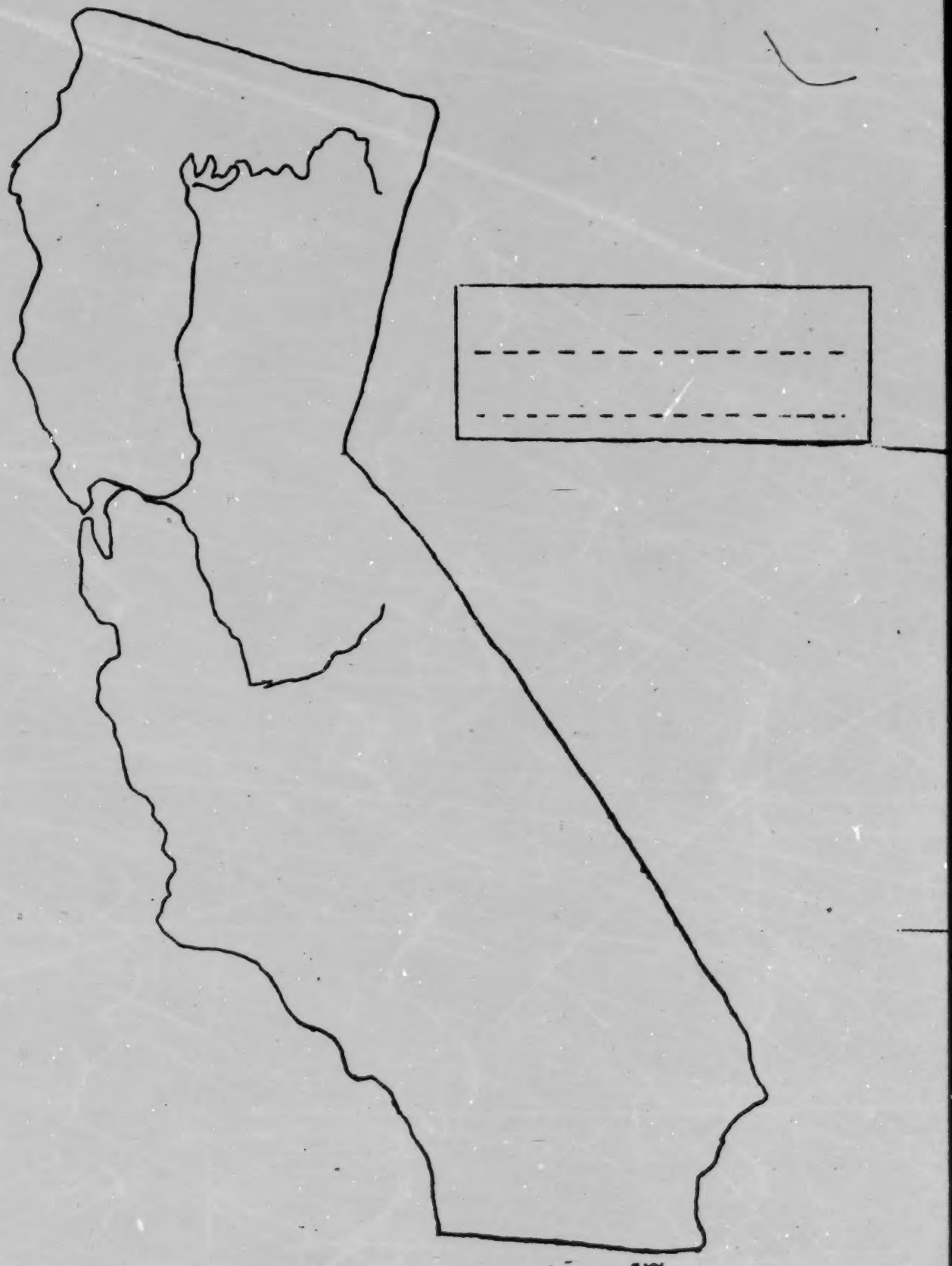

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DISCOVERING PLACENAMES OF CHINESE MINING CAMPS 1849-1852

LOCATION NUMBER	PLACENAME	LOCATION NUMBER	PLACENAME
1		17	
2		18	
3		19	
4		20	
5		21	
6		22	
7		23	
8		24	
9		25	
10		26	
11		27	
12		28	
13		29	
14		30	
15		31	
16		32	

LESSON SIX: THE CHINESE AND THE GOLD RUSH ENVIRONMENT

RESOURCES

- The Story of California, Chapter 17, pp. 183-187.
- Sunset Travel Book, Gold Rush Country, New Edition, 1972.
- Student Study Sheets.
- Audio-Visual Materials: Any of the filmstrips, study prints and/or transcriptions listed on pages 5-7, AV Catalog, Elementary Schools.

TEACHING OBJECTIVES

Cognitive level: Finding truth in the statement, " . . . mining for gold was not all glamorous. It was hard, often discouraging, and very lonely work."

Learning of added hardships and frustrations of Chinese workers in California gold fields.

Gaining some insight into the true environment of the wild West during the Gold Rush.

Affective level: Realizing the unromantic hard work, disease, distemper and disappointment that was gold mining.

Developing a sense of empathy and understanding for the Chinese laborer.

Debunking the myth of an orderly sense of fair play and justice among all miners.

Understanding the Gold Rush environment, both in the gold fields and the cities.

INTRODUCING THE LESSON

( ) Teacher: Maintain feeling of continuity by reviewing previous lessons. Encourage student recall and discussion by leading questions. To stimulate in-depth thinking and appreciations, ditto the attached affective inventory and direct students to complete as many summary sentences as possible.

( ) Teacher/students: Ask for student volunteers to read aloud selected summary sentences. Encourage student discussion from several viewpoints.

( ) Teacher/students: Record selected summary sentences on adding machine tape or construction paper and design bulletin board display.

( ) Teacher: Continue facts-gathering momentum with selected filmstrips, study prints, and/or transcriptions from Audio-Visual Department.

( ) Teacher/students: Read referenced text material in any reading arrangement which would facilitate informational reading.

( ) Students: Study the full-page picture on page 181, The Story of California, showing Chinese miners at various methods of mining gold and camp life. Have students "brainstorm" the action depicted in the painting.

DEVELOPING THE LESSON

( ) Teacher/students: From class discussion of gold mining based on textbook materials, filmstrips, etc., simulate what may be work and living conditions of miners:

1. swinging a heavy pick or shovel under a scorching sun.
2. standing in cold river water 12-14 hours a day, panning gold.
3. the backaches and numb fingers from washing gold in pans.
4. the feeling of hunger and tiredness from constant work.
5. the feelings of frustration and anger at the high costs of food, clothing, and supplies.
6. the sudden touch of fever, weakness, and nausea in the morning which signals disease.
7. reminiscing in the tent about " . . .my kinfolks back home."
8. discussing the possibilities of "moving on" to the next "glory hole."

9. burial services for a departed fellow miner.
10. giving up the life of a gold miner and returning home, or seeking a new form of occupation.

Simulation includes simple acting, with few props, and a monologue of some 20-30 seconds. Teacher guidelines for student players should include the drawing out of inner feelings, both physical and emotional, i.e., aches and pains, disgust, anger, frustration, hope, hot and tired, cold and miserable, homesickness, longings, etc.

( ) Teacher/students: Read/have read Student Study Sheet 1, attached, and do its assigned activities.

( ) Teacher/students: Ditto the attached portrait of a newly arrived Chinese in classroom quantities. Direct the students to color the portrait carefully so as to form correct first impressions:

1. straw hat - yellowish brown.
2. face, hands, and legs - yellowish orange, tanned with brown.
3. cotton jacket and trousers - blue.
4. slipper shoes - black or blue.

Label portrait and insert into folder or design bulletin board display.

( ) Teacher/students: Read and study Student Study Sheet 2, with directed activities.

EVALUATION

- Is there a developing sense of "relationship" to the lives and feelings of the forty-niners?
- Are the first-hand impressions of Chinese in California gold fields ones of empathy and interests?
- Is spontaneous discussion accelerating with the accumulation of more data and facts?

ALTERNATIVE EXPERIENCES FOR A VARIETY OF INTERESTS/ABILITIES

( ) Work on selected assignments in "THINKING ABOUT CHAPTER 17," The Story of California, p. 187.

( ) Research other reading material for realistic representations of the California Gold Rush story:

1. makeshift living conditions.
2. diet of the gold miners.
3. health and sanitation - doctors, hospitals, bathing, washing clothes, sleep, etc.

4. inflated cost of living - $100 for a blanket, $20 for a shovel or pick, $1 for a slice of bread and another dollar to butter it, etc.
5. recreational opportunities and activities.
6. accidents and disease in the mining camps.
7. feuds and fights.
8. nationalities and races in the gold fields.
9.
10.

( ) Devise a student skit based on one or a combination of aspects of the Gold Rush above.

My name is _____ Date _____

WHAT WERE THE GOLD RUSH DAYS REALLY LIKE?

GOLD! GOLD! IN CALIFORNIA! So read the newspaper headlines in the early part of 1849. From the states east of the Mississippi River, from Ireland and Italy whose people were starving for lack of food, from all the lands of Europe and South America torn by war and fighting, from Australia and even from China, men set out in covered wagons and sailing ships for the Great Gold Mountain!

California was a wild and difficult land in 1849. It was a frontier region with a few settled towns and conveniences. The forty-niner population consisted of almost all men and they tended to be a rough and obscene bunch. They gambled and they fought among themselves. The new life in California which they had to get used to - without the company of their family and friends, living in tents where everything was covered with either dust or mud, the hard labor of mining for gold for long hours, the outrageous high costs of food, clothing and supplies, the constant need to watch out for thieves and claim-jumpers, and the slow return in gold dust for their work - hardened the best of men.

The situation was made worse by the introduction into California of slavery. Although California entered the Union as a free state, one-third of the forty-niners came from the southern states, and many of them brought their black slaves to California to work the mining claims.

This was the wild West! This was California during the Gold Rush. It was true that men did live with a sense of being equal, at least during the first few months of any camp's existence. Generally speaking, one man's chance was as good as another's - providing that his looks, language, clothing and habits were the same as the rest of the forty-niners.

Of course, this did not include the Indians, who were ignored or hunted down and killed. It did not include Mexicans and South Americans, who were known as "greasers" and were therefore cheated, browbeaten, and made fun of in the worst way. It certainly did not include the Chinese in California, who suffered a campaign of hatred and violence almost from the very day of their coming to America.

****

DISCUSSING FACTS AND FEELINGS

1. Sit and think quietly of the wild West as it may have been during the Gold Rush. Bring into focus whatever you may have seen on television. What sights and sounds do you picture in your mind?
2. What feelings (joy, happiness, fear, homesickness, etc.) would you have if you were a newly arrived gold seeker from Iowa?

My name is _____ Date _____

WAS THERE FREE AND EQUAL OPPORTUNITY FOR EVERY GOLDSEEKER IN CALIFORNIA?

During most of 1849, the Chinese were accepted as a slightly curious but in no way competition for the forty-niners. After all, their reasons for coming to California were almost exactly the same as those of the rest of the goldseekers. Some of the forty-niners were people who owed money back home and had come to the gold fields to find enough gold, not only to pay off that debt, but also to bring enough home to live a life of ease for some time after. Others were farmers who arrived too late to claim any good fertile land to raise crops, so they continued westward, caught up in a flood of people heading for California, and became goldseekers. Many foreigners from Europe and Latin America were exiles, driven out of their homelands, or, came to the United States to escape the hardships of their home country. Many of the forty-niners from the eastern parts of the United States ran away from their wives and family. And then, there were some who came just for the adventure and fun (so they thought!) of finding gold.

By the end of 1850, it was becoming clear to all concerned that there would not and never would be enough gold to go around. That being the case, it did not make sense to the forty-niners that foreigners should have the same opportunity to get gold which should properly be left to Americans. So in 1850, a Foreign Miners' License Act was passed in California. A monthly tax of $20.00 (roughly a day's wages in gold) was placed on immigrant miners. By all appearances this tax was to be placed on all foreigners, but in fact it was only enforced with regularity on Chinese and Mexicans, and mostly on Chinese. In their payment of the Miners' License fees, the Chinese contributed more than one million dollars to the county treasuries of the gold mining regions where they worked, and, in truth, contributed greatly to the growth and development of business and towns between 1850 and 1860.

By then, the Chinese had wandered into nearly every major mining region in the West, from eastern Oregon to Colorado. The forty-niners thought the Chinese were trying to get all the gold for themselves. The Chinese were blamed for all of the troubles, problems and hardships of the forty-niners themselves. The racial differences between the Chinese and the forty-niners became a matter of irritation. Chinese were physically small and short in height. They spoke no English and could not communicate with the forty-niners. Their skin wasn't white, but honey-colored, with almond shaped eyes. Their clothing was a loose blue blouse and matching trousers of cotton and a broad brimmed hat. The Chinese were quiet, hard-working, and much more patient than American miners. Therefore, from 1850 on, interest and curiosity turned to anger and hatred and the belief that the Chinese were a strange, sub-human and even a dangerous people.

The Chinese were prevented from voting, he could not hold office, and many occupations were closed to him. Chinese, like the Blacks and Indians were kept by law from testifying in court against Americans for their crimes. Their lives were constantly in danger, for any forty-niner could not only abuse and cheat a Chinese; to rob him; to kick and cuff him; but even kill him without fear of being arrested and tried in court. The Chinese on the

West Coast suffered a wave of violence in the 1850's and 1860's, and riots and killings in the 1870's. By 1876, Chinese living and working in California gold fields were chased out, their homes and businesses burned to the ground and many driven out of town with no where to go.

****

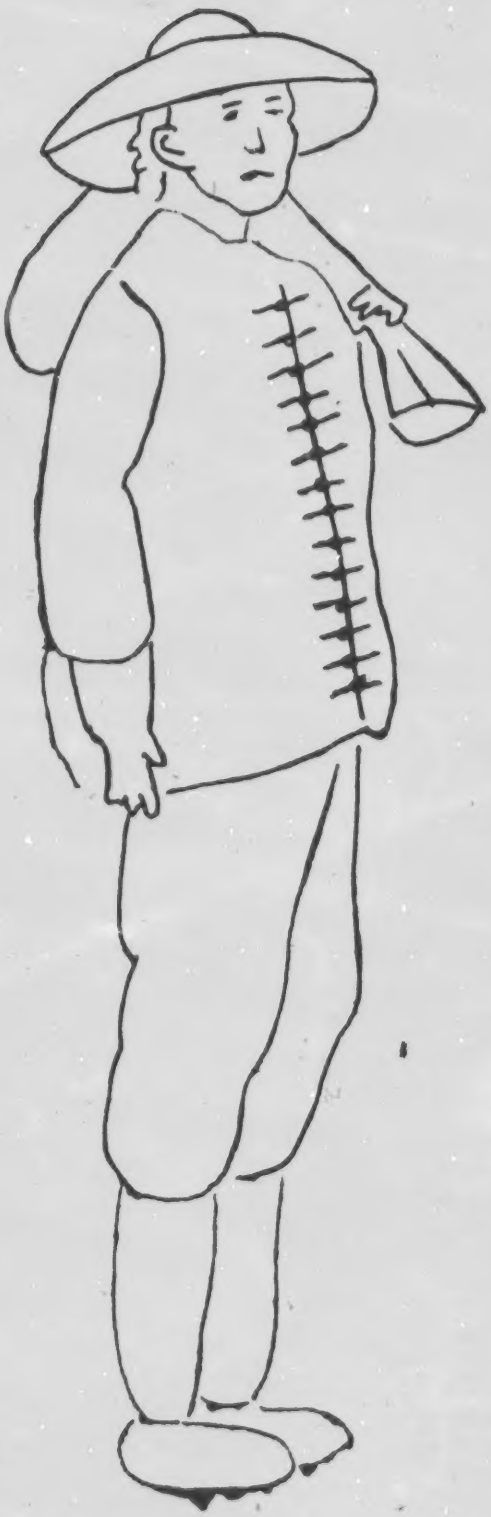
DISCUSSING FACTS AND FEELINGS

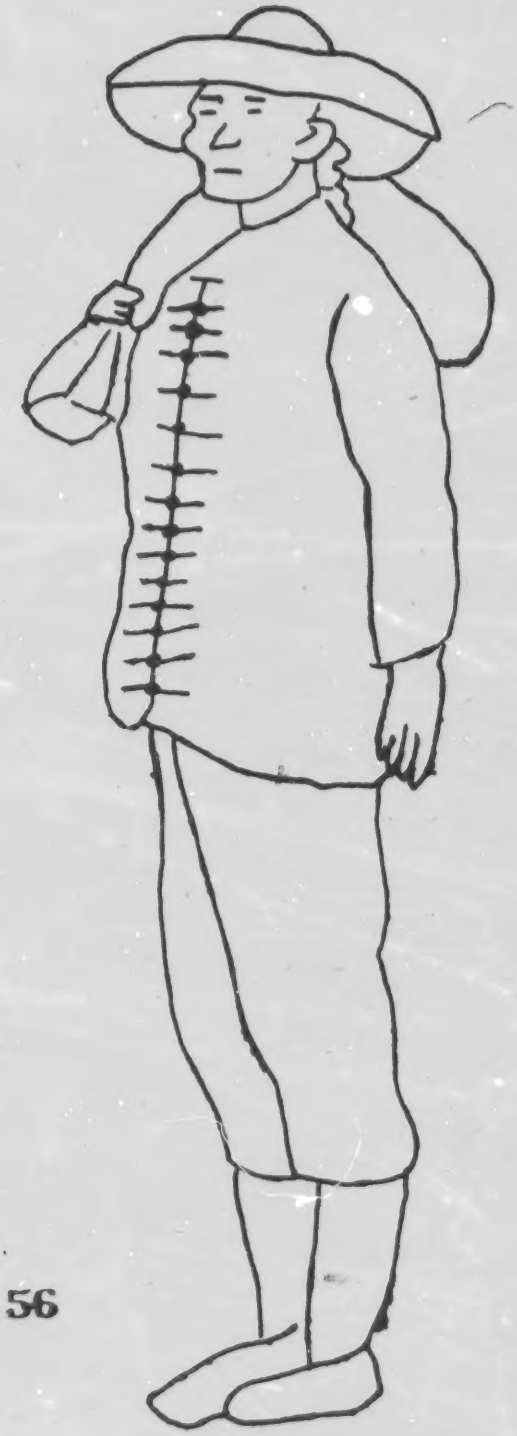
1. Debate the reasons for and the reasons against the fairness of the Foreign Miners' License Act of 1850.

2. Discuss again the reasons why forty-niners could not accept Chinese in California. Think of: competition, racial differences, physical appearance, etc.

3. What might have been the final goal or objective of forty-niners in their attitudes and behavior toward Chinese?
   Essential response: Elimination and exclusion of Chinese from the United States.

(Student Study Sheet 2: Lesson 6)





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Student Study Sheet 3: Lesson 6

My name is _____ Date _____

EXPRESS YOURSELF!

INSTRUCTIONS: In this lesson, you will be asked to remember what you have studied so far, and what you discussed in class. Read the beginnings or endings of the sentences below, think quickly for an honest answer, and write it. No answer you write is wrong unless it makes no sense or is silly. So express yourself . . .

****

( ) Chinese were . . .

( ) Chinese came to America . . .

( ) They found . . .

( ) . . . by the California forty-niners.

( ) In 1850 . . .

( ) . . . could not hold public office . . .

( ) He was in appearance . . .

( ) . . . burned to the ground.

( ) The forty-niners thought that . . .

( ) California during the Gold Rush was . . .

( ) Besides Chinese, there were the . . .

( ) It was a surprise to me that . . .

Student Study Sheet 4: Lesson 6

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LESSON SEVEN: THE BEGINNINGS OF THE ANTI-CHINESE MOVEMENT, 1850-1870

RESOURCES:

- The Story of California, Chapter 18, pp. 188-195
- Syllabus: A History of Chinese in California, pp. 23-29

TEACHING OBJECTIVES

Cognitive level:

Negative stereotyping of Chinese in California as "strange," "heathen," and even "dangerous" had serious and immediate consequences.

Chinese became scapegoats for all sorts of frustrations and agonies in a society evolving from frontier to civilization.

A gap exists between reality and ideal in the much written "democracy" of the mining frontier.

Viewing the anti-Chinese movement as directed toward eventual and total elimination and exclusion of Chinese in America as "undesirables, ineligible for citizenship."

A chronological knowledge of state and federal legislation prejudicial to the Chinese in America.

Affective level:

Working knowledge of what "discrimination" means when applied to the singling out of one group of people in California's Gold Rush population for special treatment.

Sense of amazement at the variety of city, state, and federal laws passed against Chinese.

Understanding that the three types of laws enacted totally restricted every aspect of life of the Chinese in America.

Student sympathy and concern for the plight of the Chinese in America.

Developing student realization for critical analysis of social issues and legislation enacted to meet the problem.

INTRODUCING THE LESSON

( ) Teacher/students: Review, read, discuss, write about the Foreign Miners' License Act of 1850 from Student Study Sheet 1, Lesson 6.

( ) Students: Relate in small "buzz" groups, personal examples of rules, "laws," restrictions placed upon children by home or city of residence.

For example: No walking against a lighted corner signal.
No jaywalking in the middle of the street.
No playing in the street.
Don't climb on the sofa.
Don't go too far from home.
No admittance to most adult movies, and only with parent or adult guardian to "PG" movies.
Register your bicycle by licensing.
Don't play with matches.
You must go to school.
Wash your hands before eating.
Don't put your elbows on the table.
Drink your milk.
Don't dirty your clothing.
etc.

Come to some consensus as to the merits and values of discussed restrictions, in terms of:

1. safety factors
2. health
3. personal appearance
4. family responsibilities
5. etiquette
6. needs of society
7. etc.

( ) Teacher/students: Record in chart form some of the most common restrictions imposed upon children, and underlying reasons why such restrictions exist. Summarize by class discussion.

DEVELOPING THE LESSON

( ) Teacher: Distribute attached Student Study Sheet, dittoed in classroom quantities.

( ) Teacher/students: Comprehend written materials in any reading arrangement suitable for your class. Vocabulary study is encouraged for spelling or reading lessons.

For example: Chinese, sojourner, stereotype, prejudice, legislature, Congress, unconstitutional, foreign, testify, etc.

( ) Teacher/students: To design a chart of restrictive laws passed against Chinese in California at the local, state and federal levels, follow these steps:

1. Distribute at least three sheets of white composition paper with lines, 8½ x 11", or colored construction paper of 9 x 12" size. Lined paper might facilitate the pasting of strips of paper on the page to make the chart. More mature children might like to paste strips of paper on construction paper with more freedom to design.

2. Label each of the three sheets of paper with the following titles:

   "State or federal laws to control or keep out Chinese from the United States."

   "City or state laws to get rid of Chinese from occupations in which they competed "unfairly" with Americans."

   "City or state laws which either punished or made life difficult for the Chinese in America."

3. Now, read and discuss the first page of laws dating from 1850 to 1870. For each law studied, solicit student input in determining which one of the three types of restrictive laws it exemplifies. Have the students mark I, II, III or 1, 2, 3 <u>below the year date</u> to signify the law.

   (Note: The asterisk in front of each year date classifies each law as to its significance. That is, one asterisk means that the law is of the first variety: ". . . to control or keep out Chinese from America." Two asterisks is an example of a law " . . . to get rid of Chinese from occupations . . ." Three asterisks, the third law.)

4. When all questions have been answered and student interest peaked, students will cut out each law on the dotted line as separate strips. Repeat step 3 above for other two pages of laws.

5. Lay the cut strips on top of each respective sheet of labeled paper - law I's on the first sheet, law II's on the second sheet, etc. IMPORTANT: put strips in chronological order!

6. Arrange the cut strips with spacing of at least one space between lines on lined paper or ½ inch on construction paper.

7. Paste, when arrangement of cut strips appears orderly.

8. Additional sheets of paper or construction paper may be needed. Each sheet must be labeled at the top of page with appropriate title.

9. When all cut strips have been pasted, sheets may be covered and stapled, or preferably, taped horizontally so that it folds out in three sections.

10. Reexamine the completed chart for "following directions," neatness, student sense of accomplishment and satisfaction.

( ) Teacher: Devise a lesson plan, or series of lesson plans, relating to the student study chart of local, state, federal legislation prejudicial to Chinese:

1. student skits dramatizing any one of the laws.
2. written report on one or all of the three types of laws, giving an overview of its effect on Chinese, the number of laws enacted for its purpose, the declared constitutionality of the law, student impressions of the legal restrictions imposed on a group of people, etc.
3. a researched and rehearsed courtroom scene (television serials may serve as a model - Perry Mason, Judd for the Defense, Owen Marshall, The Advocates, etc.) for discussing the pros and cons, the constitutionality or unconstitutionality of any one of the laws.
4. drawing poster-size cartoons illustrating the essence of a selected law.
5. inventing a progressive game played by 3-4 students in turn:
    a. lay out direction of game on butcher paper.
    b. insert restrictive laws at intervals.
    c. make up a pack of cards to pick for punishment or judgment of the court in the event player lands in law space.
    d. etc.
6. composing 6-10 individual "silly" laws dealing with <u>people in general</u> which can be read in class, displayed as a creative writing project, made into a student ballot to be voted "for" or "against," etc.
7. composing 6-10 individual student concern laws dealing with <u>their view of the world in general.</u> Sharing process in this instance may need to be more private and personal.
8. etc.

( ) Teacher/students: Display some student products on the class bulletin board for reference and recognition.

<u>EVALUATION</u>

- Has the programmed lesson been worthwhile in terms of student knowledge gained and positive attitudes and feelings reinforced?

- Were the students able to follow directions and manipulate learning tools (papers, titles, cut strips, pasting, ordering, etc.) in order to complete the assignment?
- Were any significant comments or remarks made by students about Asian American Studies, to date, which motivates both students and the teacher to further explore the subject?

My name is _____ Date _____

ANTI-CHINESE MOVEMENT, 1850-1870: WHY THE CHINESE? WHAT WERE THE "CHINESE LAWS?"

When the Chinese first arrived in San Francisco, most San Franciscans thought of them with some interest and curiosity and looked upon them favorably. They were considered quiet and orderly, cheerful, clean, industrious and seldom drunk. However, in 1852, the number of Chinese arriving in San Francisco jumped to 20,026, from a high of 2,716 in 1851.

The beginning months of welcome, hospitality and acceptance of Chinese disappeared quickly when hard working Chinese began to appear in the gold fields of California. There was never enough gold to go around in the first place for the several hundred thousand goldseekers working a small section of California. Therefore, it certainly made no sense to the forty-niners that foreigners should have the same opportunity to search for gold which should properly be left to Americans. Also, Californians began to fear Chinese workers because they felt that they were unfair competition for whatever other jobs were available in a state with very few factories and little industry. By 1850, the forty-niners were beginning the cry "California for Americans!"

The Chinese were at a disadvantage from the beginning of the anti-Chinese movement:

1. they were "different" in the eyes of the forty-niners and, therefore, inferior because of their physical appearance, the Chinese language that they spoke, the pajama-like clothing they wore, the non-Christian religion that they worshipped, the foods they ate and drank, the long hours that they worked without seeming to tire, and the close working relationships that they had with one another of their kind.
2. almost all of the Chinese that came to California were single men, without wife or family, who sent home to China every penny they earned.
3. they were quickly stereotyped (assumed to be) as not only strange and different, but also, inferior, drug users, cheap laborers, cutthroats and gangsters, filthy in their habits, Bubonic Plague carriers, mentally retarded, heathens (non-Christians), undesirable, and something less than a human being.
4. with the fast disappearance of the gold supply in California gold fields, forty-niners had to look for other forms of work and saw the Chinese as a threat because they were hard working and willing to work for lower pay. Prejudice against the Chinese in California grew.
5. the Chinese became the reason for all problems, failures, hardships and just plain "bad luck" of the Californians, and they proved to be an easy target for their anger and hatred. Not only were Chinese miners robbed, cheated, pushed around, beaten and killed, but laws were passed to further control and to eliminate them. Anti-Chinese laws were of three types:

1. state and government laws to control or keep out the Chinese from the United States.
2. city and state laws to get rid of Chinese from jobs in which they competed "unfairly" with Americans.
3. city or state laws which simply punished the Chinese unjustly or made life difficult for them.

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DISCUSSING FACTS AND FEELINGS

1. How many more Chinese arrived in San Francisco in 1852 than in 1851?

2. Can you give three reasons why forty-niners were beginning to campaign for a "California for Americans!"

3. Sit back, close your eyes, and think back to the Gold Rush times. Imagine yourself to be a goldseeker working your claim in the Sierra Nevadas. Through the eyes of a gold miner, what would be your honest feelings about a Chinese miner, who is "different."

4. On the other hand, now imagine that you were that "different" Chinese miner. What attitudes and feelings would you have about the treatment you were now beginning to experience in California?

**1850. Foreign Miners' Tax. California passed a law taxing all foreign miners $20 per month; originally meant to create hardship for Mexican miners, was later used almost exclusively against Chinese miners. Declared unconstitutional in 1870.

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* 1854. US Supreme Court said it was unlawful for any Blacks, Native Americans, or Asians to testify for or against a white person in court. Declared unconstitutional in 1872, 18 years later.

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* 1855. California passed a law to discourage the coming to America of "persons who cannot become citizens." Ship captains, ship owners, and labor contractors were taxed $50 for every Chinese that they brought into California. Declared unconstitutional in 1857.

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* 1858. California passed an exclusion law that kept out Chinese or Mongolian from the state except when driven ashore by reason of bad weather or unavoidable accident. Later ruled unconstitutional.

***1862. A "Police Tax" law was passed whereby all Mongolians 18 years or over, unless they had paid a Miners Tax, or were working in the production of sugar, rice, coffee, or tea, had to pay a monthly tax of $2.50. Later ruled unconstitutional.

***1860. California state laws denied Chinese children the right to education in the public schools. Separate schools for Chinese children were established. Later laws (1866) permitted the Chinese to enter the public schools as long as parents of white children did not object.

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* 1870. The "Good Character" law - $1,000 fine to any person bringing an Asian into California without first presenting evidence of the Asian's good character. In 1876, this law was said to be unconstitutional.

***1870. The "Cubic Air Ordinance." San Francisco passed a city law forbidding any person to hire or rent sleeping rooms with less than 500 cubic feet of air per person. The "Cubic Foot" law was enforced solely against the Chinese and was declared unconstitutional in 1873.

***1870. The "Pole Act." San Francisco city law prohibited persons from walking on sidewalks while using poles to carry goods on their shoulders. State Supreme Court declared this law unconstitutional.

***1873. The "Queue" law of the city of San Francisco. Every Chinese prisoner in jail would have his hair cut or clipped to an inch from the scalp. Circuit Court of the US declared it unconstitutional in 1879.

***1873. The "Laundry" law was passed by San Francisco Board of Supervisors which said that those laundries one horse-drawn vehicle pay a license of $1.00 per quarter (every 3 months), 2 vehicles pay $4 per quarter, more than 2 horse-drawn vehicles pay a license fee of $15 per quarter. Those laundries that used no horses or vehicles had to pay the license fee of $15. It should be understood that the Chinese did not use horse-drawn vehicles. In 1876, this law was declared unconstitutional.

**1879. California adopted a law that prohibited employment of Chinese by any corporations, state, city, or county governments.

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* 1879. The "15 Passenger Bill." United States Congress passed a law limiting Chinese immigrants to 15 per vessel. President Hayes vetoed the bill as it violated the Burlingame Treaty and the US Constitution.

***1880. "Anti-Ironing" Law. San Francisco sought to limit the activities of Chinese laundrymen by laws which limited the hours that they could work; but not between 10:00 a.m. to 6:00 p.m. Declared unconstitutional.

** 1880. California passed a law excluding Chinese fishermen from fishing for a living if they were aliens ineligible for citizenship. Unconstitutional.

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* 1882. Chinese Exclusion Act was passed excluding all Chinese from the USA. It was not until December 1943 that President Roosevelt repealed the Chinese Exclusion Acts, thereby permitting immigration of Chinese into the USA.

***1886. San Francisco passed a law that only buildings of brick or stone can be used for laundries. Ruled unconstitutional.

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* 1888. US law was passed prohibiting the return of a Chinese laborer unless he had a lawful wife, a child, or parents in the USA, or property valued at $1,000.

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* 1888. The Scott Act. It prohibited the return of any Chinese laborer who had left the USA, even those who had temporarily left the USA with a government certificate permitting them to return.

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* 1892. The Geary Act. Renewed the Exclusion Act of 1882 for a 10 year period. All Chinese laborers in the USA were required to get certificates of residence within 1 year; thereafter those Chinese found without certificates were to be deported to China as "undesirable aliens" whose presence in the USA was "inconsistent with the public welfare."

LESSON EIGHT: THE CHINESE IN OTHER OCCUPATIONS AND INDUSTRIES, 1860-1900

RESOURCES

- The Story of California, Chapter 19, pp. 202-203
- Voices of the Californians, p. 168
- Voices of Change, p. 46
- Syllabus: A History of the Chinese in California, pp. 35-43, 49-64

TEACHING OBJECTIVES

Cognitive level: A student understanding that Chinese miners were forced out of most gold mining areas of California by threats, physical violence and even death to some.

The need for survival in a hostile environment led the Chinese to seek employment in any other occupations open to them, or to begin industries that catered to the needs of Californians.

Any semblance of success in any occupational endeavor was followed by more anti-Chinese legislation and increasing damage to person and property.

Affective level: Astonishment at the turn of events in the image of the Chinese in California.

Appreciation for the resourcefulness, flexibility, and indomitable spirit of the Chinese in the face of peak prejudice and discrimination.

Amazement at the variety of occupations and industries entered into by the Chinese, much of which was strange and "foreign" to their experience.

Continuing concern for the plight of the Chinese faced now with overt physical intimidation and violence.

INTRODUCING THE LESSON

( ) Teacher/students: Review again the student chart of restrictive city, state and federal legislation against Chinese. Ask leading questions, such as:

1. "Why do you think Californians spent so much time and trouble to control every movement of the Chinese in California?"

Essential response: " . . . to eliminate any possibility of competition from Chinese workers for jobs that could well be reserved for Americans . . . and, to discourage more Chinese from coming to America . . . get rid of those already in the country."

2. "What was the intended effect of both physical violence and the Chinese laws?"

Essential response: " . . . to drive the Chinese out of California into other less desirable regions of the country . . . to force the Chinese to return to China out of sheer desperation . . to enforce the popular sentiment of "California for Americans!"

3. "What do you think happened to the Chinese in California when they were not welcome anymore?"

Essential response: " . . . they did leave for other parts of the country . . . Oregon, Washington, British Columbia, etc. . . . some were able to return to China . . . most of them were forced to return to the cities living in Chinatown ghettos . . . . endured and persevered in lowly jobs unwanted by American workers . . . lived in a constant fear of harassment and violence."

4. "Is it healthy for a person to live in constant fear for his life, be always looking out for bullies and beatings, be afraid that someone might set fire to his property, that new laws would be passed which would further limit what he could do to survive in a rough and tough state, be always longing to return home to his family, friends and relatives in China, if he had the money to do so?"

( ) Teacher/students: Derive a list of varied occupations that students know of today. Occupational pursuits might be categorized under the following headings to further enhance student learning:

1. Jobs which deal in a service to other people

- bus driver
- policeman
- watchmaker
- salesperson
- fireman
- teacher
- mailman
- gas station attendant

2. Jobs in which a person creates a product

- artist
- cooks
- bakers
- shoemakers
- tailors

3. Jobs in which a person supervises others

- principal of a school
- foreman at the Ford Motor Plant
- supervisor of an office staff
- president of a company
- owner of a store
- chief of police

( ) Teacher/students: Relate the above information to what the students surmise the Chinese to have done when they were driven out of gold mining.

Focusing question: "Are there any other kinds of jobs that a person can hold?"
Essential response: ". . .where a person is always working under someone else, telling him what to do all the time. . . a job where a person works all by himself, maybe at home. . . etc."

Focusing question: "In which of these kinds of work do you think Chinese were able to enter?"
Essential response: ". . .service to other gold seekers or Californians. . . jobs making something to sell to people. . . jobs which dealt with the Chinese themselves."

Focusing question: "What work do you think Chinese did to make a survival living?"
Essential response: ". . . burlap bag makers, broom makers, boot makers, cannery workers, cooks, cigar makers, candle and soap industry, fishing, flower growers, freight haulers, food handlers, hotel keepers, jute bag industry, laundrymen, land reclamation, placer mining, coal mining, hydraulic mining, quicksilver mining, borax mining, making matches, pottery industry, rag-pickers, restaurant owners, salt-processing industry, shoe makers, slipper industry, sewing trades, servants, stonecutters, saddle makers, storekeepers, tailors, woolen mill industry, wine industry, woodchoppers, etc."

( ) Teacher: List student responses on the chalkboard as to the kinds of work done by Chinese. Categorize them subsequently into the three work classifications:

1. service to other goldseekers or Californians
2. jobs making something to sell to buyers
3. jobs which dealt with the Chinese themselves

Have students rewrite information in their folders.

DEVELOPING THE LESSON

( ) Teacher: Ditto the attached Student Study Sheets in classroom quantities.

( ) Teacher: Distribute the Student Study Sheets one-at-a-time, or all at one time; whichever would spur student interest in working with the informational material. A separate handbook to be made by the students is encouraged: construction paper cover, title page, table of contents, preface, etc. to accommodate the Study Sheets.

( ) Teacher/students: Read and study each of the Student Study Sheets for its informational value and/or suggested activities.

( ) Teacher: Display any student work completed in an attractive and eye-catching design.

EVALUATION

- Are students still motivated and interested in Asian American Studies from your observations, student remarks, student work, and ease in their handling the assignments?
- Is there an element of student surprise and astonishment in learning new facts about the Chinese experience in California?
- Is there learning (change in student behavior and attitudes) involved in Asian American Studies?

ALTERNATIVE EXPERIENCES FOR A VARIETY OF INTERESTS/ABILITIES

( ) Assign students to investigate the work occupations of their parents, relatives, or community people, with reference to:

1. how they first became involved in the work they do.
2. what educational training was required/needed to assume this occupation.
3. is the work financially rewarding? is it interesting and stimulating? does it impart a sense of accomplishment or achievement?
4. recommendations for future work for students, or "if-I-could-do-it-all-over-again . . ." aspirations.
5. etc.

( ) Have students "brainstorm" the marketing of an unusual product, or the opening of a business. A work committee could be formed to investigate the procedures needed to successfully operate such an enterprise. Develop parameters of focus for a product such as:

1. product must be useful . . . to the housewife, a man, student, etc.

2. it should be of a certain determined size.
3. it must retail for less than $10.00
4. item must be simple to manufacture.
5. etc.

Work committees might contact the following businesses for advice and information:

1. MacDonald's
2. Baskin Robbins
3. Taco Bell
4. Colonel Sander's
5. H. Salt, Esq. Fish and Chips
6. etc.

My name is _____ Date _____

THE CHINESE IN QUICKSILVER, COAL, BORAX AND SALT MINING IN THE WESTERN STATES

What is quicksilver mining?

The mining of quicksilver is for the purpose of getting mercury from the ore. Mercury in its common form is a silver-colored liquid, expensive and valuable, and was formerly used in the making of thermometers.

Mercury is a poisonous product and the making of it is a hazardous job. Chinese were employed in all of the quicksilver mines located in Santa Clara County, Napa County and Lake County. Chinese did almost all of the hard work - the digging of the ore from the ground, sorting the ore and melting the quicksilver ore in large furnaces to evaporate the mercury vapor. Besides the miners and the furnace men there was a small group of Chinese called "sootmen" who crawled in the chimneys of the furnaces and cleaned out the quicksilver soot. Can you imagine how dirty and also deadly this job was? Most of the "sootmen" soon became very ill from breathing mercury air in the chimneys and became shaking, shivering, toothless wrecks, dying a miserable death.

In 1879, the state of California passed a law stopping any mining company holding a license from the state from employing Chinese. What happened? The mines immediately closed down and all mining activities came to a halt. Why was this? Because the mines were almost wholly worked by Chinese labor. In March 1880, the United States Circuit Court informed the state of California that the law was unconstitutional and the mines reopened again. Toward the end of the 19th century the number of Chinese workers at the quicksilver mines became smaller and their place was taken by Italian workmen in the early 1900's.

Where were the Chinese employed in coal mining?

In the 1880's Chinese were employed in coal mines in Wyoming and Utah. They worked on the coal chutes and also cleaned coal in the state of Washington. Coal companies in British Columbia, Canada, also hired Chinese laborers.

One of the most terrible examples of rioting of white miners against Chinese occurred at Rock Springs, Wyoming. In 1885 there were 150 white miners and 331 Chinese working at the Rock Springs Coal Mines. On September 2, 1885, an argument developed between a Chinese and a white employee. A mob of white miners then formed and with the weapons that they had - left 28 Chinese dead, 15 wounded and chased the rest of the Chinese out of town. Over $100,000 worth of personal and property damage was reported as destroyed. Can you imagine any mob doing $100,000 worth of damage in 1885.

The Chinese went back to the mines under army escort. No new Chinese laborers were hired by the company and those already hired were kept until they died or returned to China. The Chinese population of Rock Springs, Wyoming dropped from 495 in 1890 to no more than 55 in 1940 as Chinese left the area.

What is borax and where were the Chinese employed in its mining?

Borax is a chemical salt used in the manufacture of soap, water softener and a preservative. As early as 1869, 70 or 80 Chinese were employed working the borax beds at Clear Lake, California. The workmen scraped up the white crust on the borax lake and sent this salt to the mill for separation of the borax.

During the 1870's Chinese worked at a salt marsh near the town of Columbus, Nevada. About 1,000 Chinese worked at evaporating the minerals in marsh water in huge boilers. The making of borax in this area continued on until about 1890.

How is salt manufactured and what did the Chinese do in this industry?

Salt is still being manufactured in San Francisco Bay much as it was during the 1870's and 1880's. In southern Alameda County, huge salt farms can be seen in which ocean water is allowed to evaporate leaving the salt crust.

In the salt-evaporating pools around the edge of San Francisco Bay, Chinese workers gathered and cleaned the salt after the water had evaporated and the salt had become small crystals.

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THINGS TO SAY AND DO

1. Choose a committee to tape record each of the four stories above. Practice reading the stories so that each member of the committee may record the stories in their best reading style. Keep the tape and play it during Open House as part of a room exhibit or display.

2. Make a place map of "Other Mining and Mineral Occupations of Chinese, 1870-1900" showing locations of quicksilver mining areas, coal mining areas, borax-producing areas, and salt-evaporating areas in San Francisco Bay.

3. Do research on the chemical mercury, the fuel coal, and the minerals borax and salt. Find out their chemical names, their chemical "shorthand" form of writing their name, the uses of the product, etc.

4. Gather together a display of mercury products (thermometer, etc.), samples of coal and its products, a store box of Boraxo, and several varieties of salt. Label the products.

My name is _____ Date _____

WHAT WERE THE FISHING ACTIVITIES AND DIFFICULTIES OF CHINESE IN CALIFORNIA?

Fishing for market fish (fish for sale in markets)

Chinese from the mid-1850's fished both the bay and rivers of California for salmon and sturgeon and market fish. Chinese fishing activities in California steadily increased during the 1860's. By 1870 Chinese fishing activities had spread up and down the coast from the Oregon boundary to Baja California, and along the Sacramento River Delta. San Francisco, Monterey, and San Diego were the principal fishing centers.

The Chinese caught great amounts of sturgeon, fishing the waters off Contra Costa and Marin Counties. Chinese fishermen on the Monterey Peninsula annually caught great quantities of squid, rockfish, rock cod, halibut, flounder, red fish, blue fish, yellow tail mackerel, sardines and shell fish, most of which were salted and dried for shipment to San Francisco, where they found their way to Chinatowns all over the state or to other countries.

What was the price of some success by careful, planned fishing and much hard work?

In 1860 a fishing tax of $4.00 per month was placed on all Chinese working in fishing activities. Failure to pay this amount resulted in taking away the fishing boat or other property. Laws were passed in the mid-1870's setting the size of the shrimp and drag nets used by Chinese fishermen. And in the 1880's the state of California passed a law requiring fishermen to take out a license at $2.50 per month.

The shrimp industry in California

The shrimp industry in California was operated by Chinese from the 1870's to the early part of the 1930's. In 1871 Chinese fishermen were already reported using bag nets brought from China and taking great quantities of shrimp from San Francisco and Tomales Bay. The shrimp industry gave employment to many Chinese. Several hundreds were busy in shrimp fishing on San Francisco Bay in 1874-1875.

A report in July 1897 gave the following description of the Chinese shrimp industry:

"The boat is of Chinese make and pattern and is forty feet long by 10 feet wide, it carries a 30 foot mast, which has a typical Chinese sail. The crew is made up of five men. The fishing is done by means of bag nets made in China . . . Each net is about 20 feet across its mouth, and narrows quickly into a narrow bag about 40 feet long . . ."

"The shrimps when brought into the camp are first boiled in large open vats (filled with salt water) . . . After boiling (for about 30 minutes) they are spread out on the ground to dry . . ."

The greater part of the shrimp was sent to other countries in dry form. In 1880 the amount shipped to Japan, China and the Hawaiian Islands was said to be not less than $100,000 in value, of about one million pounds in shrimp meat and shells.

The highly successful fishing methods used by the Chinese shrimp fishermen brought charges that their fishing methods were destroying other fish in the water. The state of California passed a law making the months of May, June, July, and August of each year the "No Shrimp Fishing Allowed!" season. The hope was that this would force the Chinese shrimp camps to close, force the Chinese shrimp fishermen to find other kinds of work, so that when the shrimp season reopened, there would be difficulty in getting trained fishermen back. In 1905, California state law made it illegal to ship dried shrimps and shrimp shells out of state.

The Chinese shrimp industry in San Francisco Bay lingered on through 1930-1940. Thereafter, pollution of the Bay destroyed the shrimp beds and ended the shrimp industry of the Chinese.

The Chinese in the abalone industry

Chinese discovered as early as 1856, the presence of abalone on the Pacific Coast. By the 1870's Chinese abalone junks (sailing ships of Chinese design) were a familiar sight in San Diego. In the 1880's most of the abalone collected in San Diego County was done by Chinese fishermen. Chinese fished the Channel Islands in Los Angeles County and controlled one-third of this industry. Other small abalone-collecting centers were located in Santa Barbara County, San Luis Obispo County and Monterey County.

Americans, in the 19th century, had not yet learned how tasty the abalone could be as food. Greater attention was paid to the shell of the abalone for the making ornaments and jewelry. By 1866, the shell of the abalone had become so prized that over $14,000 worth was shipped from San Francisco that year to China, Europe, or our Eastern states, while in 1867 not less than $36,000 of just shells were sent out.

The meat of the abalone was salted and dried, with most of every season's crop shipped to China.

From 1892 on, laws of the state of California practically forced the Chinese out of the abalone industry. Chinese junks were forbidden to sail in "foreign waters" (waters off the coasts of California). In 1901 a law was passed by the state regulating the size of abalone that could be fished. Later laws were even more harsh and ended the Chinese abalone industry in California.

Fishing for shark

From about the 1860's, Chinese fishermen caught shark in the waters off Santa Catalina Island, in Los Angeles County, for eating. The fin of the shark was a great Chinese food, as it is now in Shark's Fin Soup. The liver of the shark was valuable for its oil. In this industry, the Chinese had no competition from any other people.

Crab fishing by Chinese

San Francisco was the chief market for Pacific Coast crabs and Chinese were busily at work supplying the demand for crabs. In the 1800's, approximately $75,000 worth of crabs were bought by the market, paying 75¢ per dozen.

Seaweed harvesting

Chinese in the Monterey fishing colony used to gather huge amounts of seaweed off the rocky shores of the Monterey Peninsula. Seaweed was dried in the sun and shipped to San Francisco to be used as food and as a source of agar-agar. Even today there is still some harvesting of seaweed by Chinese along the California coast.

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THINGS TO DO AND MAKE

1. Look up in encyclopedias or library books the different kinds of market fish and shellfish mentioned. Sketch in color pictures of at least three fish and/or shellfish, with a brief paragraph about each.

2. Collect and display items that show the fishing activities of Chinese, such as:

   empty carton of shrimp (from fish store or Coop)
   abalone shell
   dried seaweed (Asian family or Asian food section, Coop)
   shark's fin??? (Chinatown)
   dried shrimp (Coop)
   etc.

3. Research a Chinese junk. Sketch a color picture of it. Write short report.

4. Make a map of "Chinese Shrimp Camps on San Francisco Bay, 1889-1930." Source: Syllabus: A History of the Chinese in California, page 39. Syllabus map may be copied on commercial "Bay Area" map and displayed on Social Studies bulletin board. Commercial map may also be traced on ditto carbon, placenames inserted, and run off in classroom quantities for each individual student.

My name is _____ Date _____

WHAT WERE THE CONTRIBUTIONS OF CHINESE IN THE CONSTRUCTION INDUSTRY?

Chinese were used in all types of construction work requiring hand-and-back labor. From the beginning years of the California Gold Rush, there was a great housing shortage in the port city of San Francisco and other areas of the state. This was due, of course, to the sudden arrival of thousands of gold seekers at one time and the lack of prepared housing to meet this need. Because of the lack of factories making finished lumber and other supplies for the building of houses, the Chinese came up with the idea of "prefabricated houses," or houses entirely made in China of American design, of Chinese materials, by Chinese workmen. The prefabricated houses were then carefully taken apart, shipped across the Pacific, and put together in cities and towns of California. Californians had never before seen prefabricated houses and were greatly pleased with its appearance, as well as the quality of work. One local author wrote: "(The Chinese houses) . . . are the prettiest, the best made and the cheapest . . . " Many Chinese were employed in putting up the prefabricated houses. One reporter observed: "(These Chinese) . . . appear to be very steady, sober and industrious . . . They calculate with great exactness and nicety, and turn out their work handsomely . . ."

Chinese stone cutters and laborers brought from China under contract were used to erect a granite building, the Parrott Building, at California and Montgomery Streets in San Francisco. Their hours of labor were from sunrise to sunset with one hour off for lunch. The daily food allowance for each man was ½ pound of rice and ½ pound of fish or other such food. Pay was $1.00 per day of work. The contract was for 90 days.

Chinese in 1869 were employed in the building of wagon roads across mountains and level grounds. Chinese laborers were brought in to build a wagon road near Newhall in Southern California. In the Napa Valley all through the 1870's and 1880's, Chinese built stone bridges and stone fences, constructed and kept up the roads, and dug out huge storage tunnels for the storing of wine and wineries. Old residents of San Jose claimed that the road near Alum Rock Park leading up to Mt. Hamilton Observatory, was also built by Chinese labor.

In the San Francisco Bay Region in the 1860's, Chinese labor was used to cut away the hill and to fill in the Bay where the Pacific Mail Steamship Company had their wharves and warehouses on the San Francisco waterfront. Also, a reservoir, 16 miles southeast of San Francisco, was dug by Chinese workers.

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THINGS TO DO AND MAKE

1. Teacher/parents/students: Purchase tagboard cut-outs of old San Francisco houses, in color and to scale, in bookstores or department stores. Students assemble them and write a descriptive report of its style: one-story? two-stories? possible number of rooms, fireplaces, windows, outside decorations, etc.

(Student Study Sheet 3: Lesson 8)

2. Look for pictures of old San Francisco stores, businesses and homes, especially those with stone fronts. Make sketches in pencil of several interesting buildings. Include these in your folder.

3. From pictures and your sketches, make an old San Francisco store front, business building, or home out of sugar cubes to resemble stone construction. Design just the front of the building. Sketch or trace a picture of a building front with an opaque projector onto tagboard. Lay the cubes on top of the outline and glue pieces together with white glue. Spray paint, when completed. Label the construction with the same name of the building or its use.

My name is _____ Date _____

WHAT WAS THE SAN FRANCISCO INDUSTRY THAT FIRST HIRED CHINESE IN LARGE NUMBERS?

Chinese were first hired in large numbers in the making of cigars in San Francisco. This unusual occupation for Chinese began about 1859 when Englebricht and Levy hired Chinese workers in their cigar factory. However it was not until 1864 that the cigar industry began to become important. San Francisco then became the center of the cigar industry in California. The total value of cigars made in the city jumped from $2,000 in 1864 to one million dollars in 1866. By 1868, California became the fourth largest cigar making state.

Chinese quickly learned the art of making cigars, and soon set up their own factories, selling the same quality products at lower prices. Even as early as 1866, half of San Francisco's cigar factories were Chinese-owned. However, because of the anti-Chinese feelings, many Chinese companies, especially in later years, used Spanish names, such as Cabanes & Company, Ramirez and Company, and so forth.

A typical Chinese cigar factory was a 15 foot by 20 foot room with an open, second floor for more space, where nearly 50 men worked. Chinese cigar workers were usually paid on how many cigars they made a day. The pay varied from 50¢ to 70¢ for every hundred cigars that a Chinese worker could roll. A cigar maker usually made about 200 cigars a day.

Chinese were also working in making cigar boxes. There were both American-owned and Chinese-owned cigar box factories employing Chinese labor. In 1881, one out of every six cigar boxes were made by Chinese in California. In 1904-1905, there were 5 factories in San Francisco with 80 Chinese out of a total of 140 workers.

During the 1870's, through the years of the most violent anti-Chinese movement in California, Chinese labor was the most important source of cigars made in San Francisco. The Segar (Cigar) Maker's Union (Americans), from the beginning years of Chinese in cigar-making, made bitter remarks, passed laws, opposed the hiring of Chinese workers and the smoking of cigars made by Chinese labor. In one such instance, the Segar Maker's Union passed a law requiring cigars made by Americans to have a white band around them, to identify them as cigars made by American workers. They advertised in the newspapers that San Franciscans should smoke only cigars with the white label. The Chinese, not to be outdone, immediately put a similar white label on their cigars.

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THINGS TO DO AND LEARN

1. Try your hand at rolling "cigars." Roll a sheet of newspaper to the width and length of a pencil. Then begin "rolling" strips of torn newspaper, 2-3 inches wide, dipped in wheatpaste until it takes shape and appearance of a cigar. Let dry, and paint. Design a white label, with name of your cigar factory. Put into cigar box for display in room.

2. Work with dimensions and the idea of area. Lay out on your classroom floor a rectangle 15 feet by 20 feet with masking tape. With a second floor balcony, imagine 50 workmen working together in this amount of space. To find the area of this space, multiply the length of one side by the width of the other side. What area do you find for a space 15 feet by 20 feet?

3. Copy the following mathematics problem: "If a Chinese cigar maker can make 200 cigars a day, how much does he earn in a day if he makes 50¢ for every hundred cigars? 65¢ for every hundred cigars? 70¢ for every hundred cigars?

My name is _____ Date _____

WHAT IS THE HISTORY OF CHINESE LABOR IN CALIFORNIA AGRICULTURE?

California farmers began looking at the use of Chinese on the farms as early as 1848 and some Chinese were actually working the land in the 1850's. At that time there was a serious labor shortage in the state, as most able-bodied men were off in the mountains seeking gold. By the late 1860's, Chinese were being used fairly widely by wheat farmers.

With the completion of the transcontinental railroad in 1869, many Chinese sought employment in the rural areas. There is no doubt that Chinese labor soon became the most important role. Even in the 1880's, during the years of anti-Chinese feeling, 75% of these farm workers were still Chinese.

Chinese were constructing roads, stone bridges, rock walls, wine cellars, and irrigation ditches in the wine country of Napa and Sonoma Counties, at a $1.00 a day. Chinese became the preferred grape pickers in vineyards in Northern and Central California, at a dollar a day. Chinese were picking cotton at 90¢ per 100 pounds. All along the Pacific Coast, Chinese workers were harvesting hops in the making of beer, strawberries and other crops, the picking of which required stooping and squatting. Chinese field hands also worked in the first sugar beet fields in California in 1872.

Chinese fruit pickers were widely employed all over the state, from the apple, peach, cherry, pear, olive, and other fruit orchards of Northern California to the orange, lemon, and other citrus fruit farms of Southern California. An interesting, but true story is the debt that California fruit farmers owe to the Chinese. Starting in 1870, California farmers turned their attention to raising fruits for shipment to the eastern cities. But by and large, most farmers at that time were beginners at fruit growing and knew little, if anything, about the planting, growing, fruit harvesting, and the packing of fruit for long distance shipping. The Chinese, on the other hand, were known to be skilled in all of these methods. Thus, Chinese actually taught the California fruit grower many of the methods of raising table fruits for market.

"The Chinese are the mainstay of the orchardist and thus far it must be said the only supply of labor which he can depend upon. They are expert pickers and packers of fruit and may be relied upon to work steadily through the season. It is difficult to see how our annual fruit crop could be harvested and prepared for market without the Chinaman."

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THINGS TO DO AND LEARN

1. Make a chart of all the farm products mentioned in this study sheet. Select color pictures from magazines of crops mentioned or draw them to illustrate your chart. Beside each farm crop, write a brief paragraph: how it grows, type of tree, growing season, flowers of the fruit, where grown, etc.

2. Go to supermarkets and investigate the packing of fruits: special boxes, paper-wrapped, in trays, packed in cut paper, name of grower, where grown, how fruit is measured in boxes, etc.

My name is _____ Date _____

CHINESE IN THE RESTAURANT, LAUNDRY, AND DOMESTIC SERVICES

Why did the Chinese become workers in restaurants, laundries, and as servants?

By the summer of 1849, news of the gold discovery brought 40,000 newcomers pouring into San Francisco. The tremendous promise of wealth brought all types of men - the good and the bad - from all corners of the earth. These men, no matter what they may have been doing in their native lands, did not come to California with any idea but to search for gold and become wealthy beyond their wildest dreams. Certainly they came with no mind to doing simple tasks nor unskilled labor. Therefore, white labor was not available even when unskilled labor paid $10.00 to $12.00 a day.

The few hundred Chinese present in the fall of 1849 were of the merchant class, with some laborers amongst them. These and Chinese newcomers that followed also came to seek their fortune in the gold fields, but they undertook any necessary work that the other goldseekers would not do. In later months and years, more and more Chinese were forced into occupations which nobody wanted to do because of a quickly-growing anti-Chinese movement which did not give the Chinese the same equal opportunities.

Moreover, California miners were "rough and ready, tough as nails, obscene people" and since the population was almost all men, being a man was always sought after and tested. No man would be caught dead washing his own clothing, mending his torn or worn out clothing in public; and cooking his food only out of necessity and not enjoying it. The Chinese, not understanding the attitudes of the miners and not sharing the same feeling of being accepted as Americans, filled the gap in service jobs as cooks, carpenters, general laborers, domestic servants and laundrymen.

When was the first Chinese restaurant opened and how was it received?

The Chinese brought with them their food habits, as well as their religion, attitudes and way of life. Early shipping records show the arrival in San Francisco of large shipments of Chinese food such as dried oysters, shrimps, cuttlefish, mushrooms, dried bean curd, bamboo shoots, sweetmeats, duck liver and kidneys, water chestnut flour and others.

When the first Chinese restaurant began in San Francisco is not certain but they were there as early as July 1849, as the "Canton Restaurant" on Jackson Street. Chinese eating houses were attended in large numbers by California miners. Due to the hazard of not understanding English and the assortment of pistols and knives that hung from the belt of the miners, no matter what the miner ordered, the cook, sometimes doubling as waiter, would return with a heaping plate of hot food to satisfy his appetite. This was a far cry from the diet of the miners - beans, bread, salt pork or bacon, etc. The early Californians were thus well introduced to Chinese food. Learning from cooks, or having been cooks themselves in the kitchens of American homes, the Chinese were also serving many American dishes with "their tea and coffee not to be surpassed." Many San Franciscans considered these Chinese eating houses the best in the city.

By 1920, the restaurant business was second only to the Chinese laundry business. Tourism became big business as curious visitors came to see the "ways and sins" of Chinatown. With growing popularity, more and more people began to appreciate,

and, in fact, considered it "high society" to know something about Chinese food. Chinese cooks, having learned American tastes, started to combine Chinese food with an American touch or American food with the Chinese touch. Egg roll, won ton, fried rice, fried noodles, fried shrimp, and sweet and sour spare ribs soon became favorite dishes.

Were the Chinese successful in the laundry business?

In a frontier that was mostly male, laundry work in San Francisco was first done by Spanish and Indian women at Washerwomen's Lagoon, now the Marina in San Francisco. Some laundry was even sent by Clipper Ship to the Hawaiian Islands, or to Canton, China, to be washed and finished - a service that required two months. The price charged for washing one shirt made it almost cheaper to throw it out and buy a new one. However, in 1850, there was much excitement in the city by the announcement of a lowering of washing prices from $8.00 to $5.00 a dozen.

The lowering of prices in washing was due to the first Chinese joining the "work-force" at Washerwomen's Lagoon. This the first Chinese laundry business in the United States was launched in 1850 and an industry begun which would soon become a major source of income for the Chinese.

In the spring of 1851, Wah Lee was said to have set up the first "wash-house establishment" when he hung up his sign to do business. Other Chinese were quick to see the opportunities, and wash-houses appeared all over the city, with help found from cousins and kinsmen. To meet the high rents, two wash-houses shared the same space and building, working in shifts and exchanging their signs by day or by night.

By 1870, the majority of more than 2,000 laundrymen in San Francisco were Chinese. By 1876, San Francisco had some 300 Chinese laundries employing an average of five men each. Almost every block in the city had a laundry as well as every town on the California coast.

However, the anti-Chinese movement in the 1870's and 1880's caught up with the Chinese laundry business. A number of laws were passed against the Chinese laundrymen. In the beginning, Chinese laundrymen made their pick-up and delivery on a bamboo pole with baskets hanging from each end for the laundry, all this balanced on one shoulder. In 1870, the pole ordinance (city law) made it illegal to do so. The Chinese then switched from the use of poles to using a blue laundry bag thrown over the shoulder. In 1873, San Francisco passed the laundry ordinance (city law) which said that laundries using two horse-drawn wagons for pick-up and delivery of laundry would pay $15.00 tax every three months, but, those laundries which used no horse-drawn wagons would also pay the same $15.00 tax. Chinese used no horses or horse-drawn wagons; therefore, this law was meant to drive them out of business, or to punish them. In 1880, the anti-ironing law was passed making it a crime in the city of San Francisco to iron clothes between the hours of 10:00 a.m. and 6:00 p.m., the usual business hours of any business in San Francisco. In 1886, a Chinese laundryman went to court to protest a San Francisco ordinance that "only buildings of brick or stone will be used for laundries." Of course, all the Chinese laundries were of wooden construction.

In the bad business years of the 1870's and 1880's, anti-Chinese mobs advanced upon Chinatown and made Chinese laundries a favorite target for destruction. In 1877, 25 Chinese wash-houses were burned to the ground, and their workers scattered in San Francisco.

Today, with home washers and dryers, self-service laundromats, and new wash-and-wear fabrics which need no ironing, there is less and less demand for the services of a Chinese hand laundry. There has been a steady closing of small Chinese laundries which had once been an almost totally Chinese business. The laundries that remain today have largely changed over to being a combination of wet-wash and dry cleaning agencies for large cleaning plants.

What was a Chinese domestic servant and what were his duties?

In the early years of the West when labor was scarce, the Chinese entered into the field of domestic services. He was seen in homes, on the ranches and farms, tending stock, cooking, doing indoor and outdoor work such as washing and ironing, cutting firewood and working in the garden.

From their earliest experience to the 1920's, generations of Californians came to know and to write affectionately about the Chinese houseboy and cook who came to live with them, serving their families for two or three generations, being nursemaid to their children and taking complete charge of the household. Only a small handful of old-timers remain today but their role has been kept alive in several television serials.

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THINGS TO THINK, SAY AND DO

1. Write the names of Chinese foods, such as shrimp, dried oysters, Chinese greens, ginger, etc., on colored strips of construction paper. Make a dozen of each kind and keep them in separate piles. Think of combinations of Chinese foods that could be "cooked" together, such as Chinese greens with shrimp and ginger. Take the colored strips that would make up this dish; staple them together; then, staple the strips to white drawing paper. Label the ingredients and give the Chinese dish a name. Display on bulletin board; keep in folder.

2. Obtain a Chinese menu from a restaurant. Ditto the various types of food - egg dishes, seafood, chicken or duck, vegetable dishes, pork dishes, beef dishes, noodles, etc. - and distribute to students. Use vocabulary for an enrichment spelling lesson. Make up a party table for ten people, choosing something from each one of the various types of food. Record your party menu on paper and share with class. Keep in folder.

My name is _____ Date _____

WHAT OTHER TYPES OF INDUSTRIES OR OCCUPATIONS DID THE CHINESE FILL?

The woolen industry

The woolen industry depended heavily on Chinese labor for the weaving of wool into cloth. Mills were first started in San Francisco in 1858, but by the 1880's they were found at Stockton, Sacramento, Marysville, San Jose, Merced, San Bernardino, and Los Angeles.

H.G. Kuhl, secretary of the Golden Gate Mills in San Francisco said in 1882: " . . . It's difficult to make the boys and girls pay sufficient attention to their work, and from this and other reasons, a gang of Chinamen was first to work in the mill on the first of September, 1881 . . . Our young population are not steady and industrious enough, and think that after working a few weeks, their wages ought to be doubled."

The slipper, shoe, and boot industries

A Frenchman was said to have founded the first slipper factory in San Francisco, but the Chinese whom he employed learned the trade so well that they soon set up factories, and in time became the leading maker of slippers. By 1870, out of 12 slipper factories in San Francisco, 11 were Chinese-owned.

The boot and shoe industry was started in California immediately after the Civil War. Most of the shoe factories were located in San Francisco. Chinese workmen were first hired in large numbers in 1869. By 1870, 19 out of every 100 workers in the boot and shoe industry were Chinese (19%). Within 2 or 3 years, at least one-half of boots and shoes made in California were made by Chinese.

The sewing trades

In 1873, a San Francisco newspaper reported: " . . . Next in importance to the Chinese cigar factories are the Chinese clothing factories of which there are altogether 28, including 3 shirt factories . . . These factories employ from 50 to 100 men each and their employees number about 2,000." By 1880, the greater part of ready-made clothing, such as vests, overalls, shirts, and dresses were sewn by Chinese, and approximately 80% of the shirtmakers were Chinese.

The garment industry is one of the few remaining industries in Chinatown today. By the end of 1965, the number of Chinese-owned sewing factories had increased to 170, with most located within the boundaries of Chinatown. These small clothing factories give employment to more than 3,000 people, and either make work clothes or ladies clothing.

The making of burlap and burlap bags

The Pacific Jute Company of Oakland first hired Chinese workers in 1876 for the making of burlap, a rough, coarse cloth, out of jute. By 1882, all the work was done by Chinese, who earned about $1.00 per day.

The broom making business

Chinese were introduced into the broom manufacturing business in the 1870's. Soon they learned the method of making brooms and started their own business in competition with their former employers. In 1882, there were about 50 broom factories on the Pacific Coast, with about 20 of these in San Francisco. Out of 300 workers, one-half were Chinese. Wages were approximately $9.00 per week for Chinese as compared to $10.00 to $15.00 for American workers.

Two Chinese broom factories continued to struggle on until after World War II. Today there are no more broom factories in San Francisco's Chinatown.

Reclaiming swamp lands for fertile farming areas

The use of Chinese labor for the draining of swamp lands did not begin until the mid-1860's when many Chinese were being forced out of the gold mining regions of California. The high point of Chinese participation in this work was in the mid-1870's. The Chinese constructed miles of levees, dikes, and ditches, making thousands of acres of former swamp land available for useful farming.

Chinese as vegetable farmers

Most Chinese farms in California were small and used leased land. The Chinese farmer would have an arrangement with his American landowner that one-half of the profits from vegetables and grain and three-fifths of the fruit sold would go to the landlord.

The Chinese farmers grew a wide variety of crops. At one time, in the 1870's and 1880's, most of the peanuts in California were raised by Chinese farmers in such places as Napa and Tehama. Chinese farmers also tended strawberry patches in Napa and Santa Clara Counties.

As vegetable farmers the Chinese were seldom excelled. In the Los Angeles area, Chinese were the most important group of vegetable farmers in the area. By their skill they made the growing of celery a successful crop. In the winter of 1878-1879, when the Chinese vegetable peddlers went on strike against some new and punishing city ordinance regulating them, the people of Los Angeles went without vegetables for several weeks.

Today, there are only a few Chinese farmers left, with most of them producing for Chinese eating. There are farms producing Chinese greens at Newark. The Fresno and Sacramento areas produce squashes and turnips. Winter melons are grown near Marysville. Other Chinese farmers producing vegetables and citrus fruits are found in Southern California, especially in the Imperial Valley.

Chinese flower growers in the San Francisco Bay Area

Chinese [illegible] of Chinese entering the flower growing industry as around 1890's. At first, mixed cut flowers such as sweet peas and some asters were grown. They were cut and sold in San Francisco. In the 1880's, chrysanthemums were brought over from Japan to this country. Shortly thereafter, Chinese began to specialize in the growing of this flower and today most Chinese growers either raise asters or chrysanthemums. Chinese growers raise almost all of the asters in the Bay Area. Today, the number of Chinese flower farms is about 100, with a total of some 500 workers.

LESSON NINE: THE CHINESE COME TO WORK ON THE RAILROAD

RESOURCES

- The Story of California, Chapter 20, pp. 208-217
- Voices of Change, pp. 46-47
- Voices of the Californians, pp. 170-173
- Passage to the Golden Gate, pp. 38-41, 54-69

TEACHING OBJECTIVES

Cognitive level:

To understand why the Chinese were hired to work on the railroad.

To learn that the Chinese proved to be good workers.

To learn that a large majority of the labor force on the railroads were Chinese.

To learn that many Chinese came from their homeland especially to work on the railroads.

To design a poster to attract Chinese to come to work on the railroads.

Affective level:

To gain respect for the Chinese workers who were willing to do back-breaking work that others would not do.

To realize that some people had the prejudiced idea that the Chinese were unable to undertake such a task as building a railroad.

To experience a sense of respect for the positive qualities of the Chinese which made them good workers.

INTRODUCING THE LESSON

( ) Teacher/students: Study the picture on pp. 212-213 in The Story of California or the picture on p. 171 in Voices of the Californians. Note the Chinese workers. Question: "What do you know about the Chinese working on the railroad?"

( ) Teacher/students: Discussion question: "Where have you seen Chinese working in California before this time?" Recall gold mining experiences of the Chinese.

( ) Teacher/students: In The Story of California, pp. 211-214 top, read section on "Construction Began." This may be read orally or silently. Stress the point that most workers were Chinese.

DEVELOPING THE LESSON

( ) Teacher: Duplicate the attached student worksheet for class use. The material and questions are to be used in the most practical way for your class.

( ) Teacher: To be sure that students gain an understanding of the written material, discuss the questions and answers to the study sheet.

( ) Teacher: Activities have been suggested to reinforce the objectives of the lesson. Encourage the class as they carry out the activities.

( ) Teacher: Read from Passage to the Golden Gate, pp. 38-41, 54-69, about how and why the Chinese were hired.

EVALUATION

- Are the students beginning to have empathy for Chinese workers?
- Are students able to relate the mathematical explanation of percentages to the actual proportion of Chinese workers?
- In talking about work on the railroads, do the students include the Chinese?
- Did the students feel that their posters advertising work on the railroads could have been authentic?

My name is _____ Date _____

THE CHINESE COME TO WORK ON THE RAILROADS

1. Who suggested that Chinese be hired as workers on the railroad?

2. To find out if the Chinese could do the work, how many men did Mr. Strobridge hire at first?

3. Find words that describe the kind of workers the Chinese were.

4. How many Chinese workers were on the Central Pacific Railroad at the peak of the work?

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Beginning in the late 1860's, the building of the Central Pacific Railroad needed many laborers. But the railroad could barely find a fraction of the needed workers.

Charles Crocker, one of the superintendents in charge of the railroad, suggested that the Chinese be hired. However, J.H. Strobridge, head of the construction, was very much against the idea because he thought the Chinese could not do the work. Later, the railroad was desperate for workers, so Mr. Strobridge decided to hire fifty Chinese just to find out how well they could work. This was 1865.

The work of the Chinese included cutting down trees, rooting out the stumps, breaking and carting rocks, and then laying down the rails and ties. The Chinese were found to be so good at their work that J.H. Strobridge advertised all over California for more Chinese workers. Advertisements were posted in Chinese villages in and around Canton for men to come to the United States to work on the railroad. Two thousand Chinese came immediately from China. And after them, many more came. At the peak of the work, 13,000 Chinese were working for the Central Pacific Railroad. Four out of five workers were Chinese.

The Central Pacific was surprised at the strength of the Chinese workers. They faced every job with courage. There was very little quarreling among the Chinese. They seemed to be healthier than the white laborers. They were patient and hard-working.

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THINGS TO DO

1. To demonstrate the idea of 4 out 5 workers being Chinese, have 5 students stand in front of the class. Four of these would have been Chinese. Continue with the entire class to show that, for example, 24 out of 30 students would have been Chinese workers.

2. Design a poster to advertise the work on the railroads. Be sure to make the job sound good so that the person reading the poster would want to seek the job.

LESSON TEN: RECOGNIZING CHINESE CONTRIBUTIONS TO THE BUILDING OF THE RAILROAD

RESOURCES

- The Story of California, Chapter 20, pp. 211-214
- Voices of the Californians, pp. 170-172
- Voices of Change, pp. 46-47
- Passage to the Golden Gate, p. 73

TEACHING OBJECTIVES

Cognitive level:

To identify the various ethnic groups that worked on the railroads but know that most of the workers of Central Pacific were Chinese.

To learn that very little public recognition was given to the Chinese for their hard work on the railroads.

To learn that after the railroads were completed, the anti-Chinese movement began.

Affective level:

To gain a sense of respect for the Chinese as workers indispensable to the building of the Central Pacific Railroad.

To sense the achievement of a job well done from the words of leaders who did give recognition to the Chinese.

To begin to wonder why the Chinese were looked down upon after making such a major contribution.

To question why there is such little mention in history books of the work done by the Chinese in California.

INTRODUCING THE LESSON

( ) Students: Read and study the reference texts, with focus on the painting on pages 212-213 and the map on page 214, in The Story of California.

( ) Teacher: Project this painting under an opaque projector.

( ) Teacher/students: Group study the painting on the screen for various details:

1. What groups of people in California during the Gold Rush might also have worked on the building of the railroad?

Essential response: "Chinese, Mexicans, English, Irish, French, South Americans, etc."

2. What kinds of work were necessary in building the railroad across the Sierra Nevada Mountains in the 1860's?

Essential response: "Blasting through a mountain, digging tunnels, filling valleys, laying iron rails in place, bending rails for curved sections of track, etc."

3. What few things were used by the railroad builders to make the work a little easier?

Essential response: "Mule-drawn wagons, blasting powder, sledge hammers, shovels, picks, etc."

( ) Teacher/students: List the different types of work involved in the building of the Central Pacific Railroad on the chalkboard. Students will contribute ideas and record information from board for their folder.

( ) Students: Select a work task in the building of the railroad and, individually or in "buzz session" groups, imagine the feelings of the workers in that one job. Record the suggestions given: ". . . hot, dusty, dirty, heavy, dark, boring, etc."

( ) Students: Make an individual or group report on your conclusions. Write or type your report on ditto carbon and reproduce in sufficient copies for every student in your class. Keep in folder.

DEVELOPING THE LESSON

( ) Teacher: Duplicate the Student Study Sheet for each member of your class.

( ) Teacher/students: Discuss the study questions to the Student Study Sheet for reading focus and purposes.

( ) Students: Read the Student Study Sheet in any reading arrangement or plan most suitable for the class.

( ) Students: Answer the study questions and any suggested activities at the end of the Student Study Sheet.

( ) Teacher/students: Using a commercially prepared map of the United States west of the Mississippi River, show the transcontinental route of the railroads. Label the map and three locations: Omaha, Nebraska; Sacramento, California; and Promontory, Utah. Use two color lines to distinguish the Central Pacific Railroad from the Union Pacific Railroad.

Display the finished product, with a short explanatory report attached, or keep in folder.

EVALUATION

- Are you developing a continuing appreciation for the labor and toil which was the life of most Californians?
- Do the students grasp the natural difficulties involved in laying track across the Sierra Nevada Mountains as contrasted to the physical limitations of the workers and their lack of modern-day tools?
- Is the subject matter meaningful to the students and the activities a reinforcement of learning?

ALTERNATIVE EXPERIENCES FOR A VARIETY OF INTERESTS/ABILITIES

( ) Project the painting of railroad building onto a large sheet of white butcher paper. Have able student artists design a mural of the painting. Tracing the painting first with pencils will facilitate the project.

( ) Design a track lay-out for an electric train set that a student might bring from home. Train committee will design papier-mache mountains, tunnels, rivers, bridges, etc. Develop a series of adventures dealing with railroad building, and the role of the Chinese as workers.

My name is _____ Date _____

1. What groups of people were employed by Central Pacific Railroad in the West?

2. Name some railroad builders who praised the Chinese workers.

3. Are the Chinese today remembered for the work they did in helping to build the transcontinental railroad? Why, or why not?

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The work on the railroad in the West was done by various nationalities: Chinese, Irish, Mexican, Negroes, among others. Most of the workers were either Chinese or Irish. Four out of five men hired by the Central Pacific were Chinese.

During the railroad construction period of the West, it was clear that the Chinese workers were the best, but very little credit was given to them. E.B. Crocker, of the Central Pacific, in a speech in Sacramento, marking the joining of the two railroads into one, reminded the people how much of the work had been done by the Chinese: "I wish to call to your minds that the early completion of this railroad we have built has been in large measure due to that poor, despised class of laborers called the Chinese, to the fidelity and industry they have shown."

Another railroad builder, West Evans, said, " . . . I have done work that would not have been done if it hadn't been for Chinamen."

Charles Crocker, brother of E.B. Crocker, later wrote of his Chinese crews: "Wherever we put them, we found them good, and they worked themselves into our favor to such an extent that if we found we were in a hurry for a job of work, it was better to put Chinese on it at once."

After the completion of the railroad, further acceptance of Chinese disappeared. Many political groups wanted to take away Chinese rights and wanted to prevent Chinese from coming into California. Even though it was largely due to the hard work of the Chinese that the railroad was completed, the Chinese were looked down upon. Soon the Chinese contribution to the railroad was forgotten. Even today, very little is mentioned of the part the Chinese played in California history.

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THINGS TO SAY AND DO

1. Select a student committee of speakers who will represent both the Central Pacific and the Union Pacific Railroads at the joining of the rails at Promontory, Utah. Each speaker, in turn, will rise and speak of the hardships and of their portion of the railroad line and give credit to the workers who helped build the railroad.

2. Make plaques or scrolls with fancy engravings from tagboard or white drawing paper. Print the words of one of the railroad officials who gave praise and credit to the work of the Chinese on the railroad. Display the plaque or scroll on class bulletin board.

LESSON ELEVEN: BUILDING THE RAILROAD WAS HARD AND DANGEROUS WORK

RESOURCES

- The Story of California, Chapter 20, pages 214-top 216
- The Voices of the Californians, page 170
- The Voice of Change, page 46-47
- Passage to the Golden Gate, page 58, 62-64

TEACHING OBJECTIVES

Cognitive level:

To gather information about the natural barriers in the Sierra Nevadas.

To learn that work on the railroad was hard and dangerous.

To learn how the Chinese tackled most of the more difficult jobs.

To read how Chinese risked their lives to work on the railroads.

To make a chart listing the various jobs in the building of the railroad and the dangers involved.

Affective level:

To have empathy for the sweat and danger endured by the railroad workers.

To appreciate the ingenuity with which the Chinese approached the seemingly impossible tasks in building the railroad.

To enjoy working together as a class to chart information in a visible, usable form.

To experience working with others to complete a mural and share with others the pride of a finished product to display.

INTRODUCING THE LESSON

( ) Teacher/students: Review the topography of California through relief maps in geography texts, social science texts, and raised relief maps made out of plastic.

( ) Teacher: Show films and/or filmstrips of the Sierra Nevada Mountains, keeping in mind the task of railroad building through these mountains.

( ) Students: Read the reference texts for general background information.

( ) Teacher/students: Select questions to answer and activities to do at the end of the chapter. When finished, compare and share the answers and/or project.

DEVELOPING THE LESSON

( ) Teacher: Duplicate Student Study Sheet, Lesson 11, in classroom quantities. Distribute to students for their use and file.

( ) Students: Read first the study questions, then the Study Sheet.

( ) Teacher/students: Design a chart to record two columns of information: railroad jobs and their dangers. Refer to Lesson 10 for previous list of construction jobs.

Example:

Railroad jobs	Dangers/risks involved
1. cutting trees	1. trees falling on workers
2. tunneling	2. cave-ins, explosions
3. blasting cliffs	3. falls, blasting accidents, rock slides

( ) Teacher/students: From the chart above, plan some method of picturing the various construction methods employed in railroad building. Committee groups or individual students select a construction method and illustrate it, as follows:

1. Use large sheet, 18 x 24", newsprint, tagboard, drawing paper, etc.
2. draw the appropriate background scene. Colored chalk, smeared with fingers or Kleenex, is most attractive.

   For cutting trees, a background scene of large, leafy, "redwood-type" trees may be drawn; for bridge-building, a partially completed bridge in a mountain area; for blasting cliffs, a cliff-side scene with Chinese workers in reed baskets to be added later; etc.

3. Try to devise two-dimensional effects in your art composition, such as:

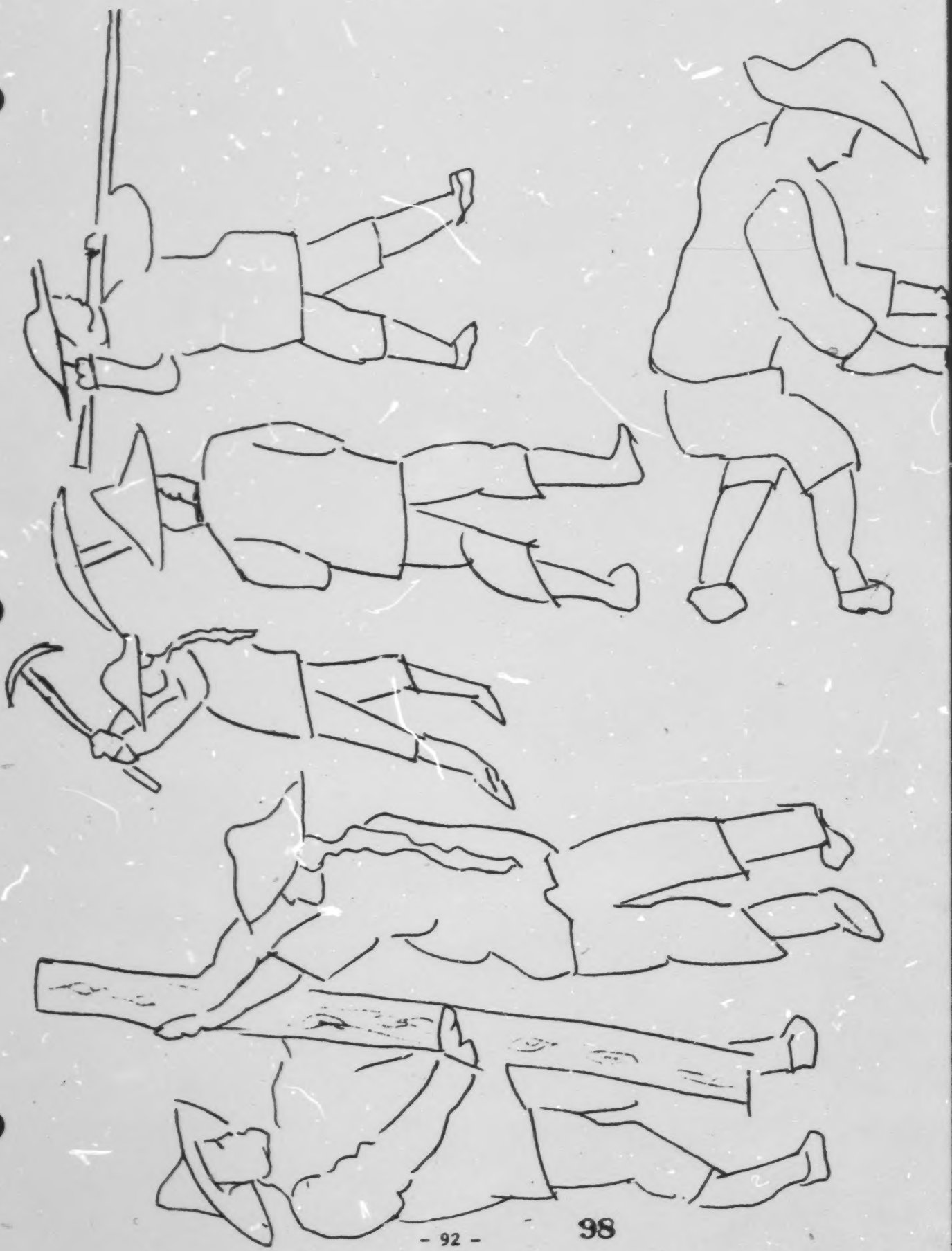
   popsicle sticks, colored to resemble railroad ties, and pasted to sheet; crumbled aluminum foil for rails, etc.

4. Stencil the attached cut-out figures of Chinese workers so that each student may have 2-3 copies of the same sheet.
5. Color the Chinese workers in blue jacket and trousers, yellow straw hat, black hair, honey-colored skin, and black or brown boots.
6. Cut out the figures of Chinese workers and arrange them in place on the background sheet.
7. Paste the figures at the legs only so that the cut-outs tend to lean away from the sheet.
8. Write a short report of the action in the scene.
9. Share with members of the class in "show-and-tell."
10. Display on class bulletin board.

(Note: The above directions would also work well for the making of a diorama, using a cardboard box for the "stage.")

EVALUATION

- Does there appear to be a real appreciation of the great human task that was the building of the Central Pacific Railroad?
- Can the students relate to the human element in this saga?
- Can the students recall with accuracy the facts in chart form and the design of scenes of railroad building?
- Is there growing self-satisfaction with the student's realization of his abilities and talents?



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My name is _____ Date _____

WHAT DANGERS AND RISKS WERE INVOLVED IN BUILDING THE CENTRAL PACIFIC RAILROAD?

1. What was one of the hardest jobs? Why?

2. What was one of the dangerous railroad jobs? Why?

****

Building the railroad was hard work. Tall trees had to be cut down and the stumps rooted out. Rock had to be broken and carted away. The steep mountain sides had to be graded. The railroad ties had to be put down. The rail had to be driven in. There was digging, blasting, drilling and hammering.

One of the hardest jobs was tunneling. Many tunnels had to be dug through solid granite. Even with the hard-working Chinese, progress was slow and sometimes only 7 or 8 inches of rock was tunneled a day.

On some sides of the mountains, there were no footholds for the workers, so the Chinese devised a very clever solution. The Chinese were sent reeds from San Francisco. They wove these reeds into large wicker baskets. These baskets were then hauled to the top of the cliffs where one or two Chinese workmen got inside. They were lowered to the side of the cliffs by a pulley system.

They dangled in these baskets thousands of feet above the valley floor. While they were in the baskets, the workers chipped holes in the cliffsides and stuffed the holes with blasting powder. Then when the fuse was lit and the workers in the basket gave a signal, the baskets were pulled up to the top of the cliff just in time to escape the explosion.

Using this method, the ledge was blasted out of the mountain side. But there were many deaths involved. If the ropes snapped, the men fell to their deaths far below. No one will ever know how many hundreds died working in this fashion.

Loss of life was heavy from other causes. Winter was the hardest time of the year because of heavy and constant snows in the high Sierras. Snow slides were frequent. On December 25, 1866, the Dutch Flat Enquirer reported that " a gang of Chinamen employed by the railroad were covered up by a snow slide and four or five died before they could be dug out. . . The snow fell to such a depth that one whole camp of Chinamen was covered up during the night and parties were digging them out when our reporter left."

(Student Study Sheet: Lesson 11)

My name is _____ Date _____

HOW THE CHINESE ON THE RAILROAD LIVED AND WORKED

1. Name at least six foods that Chinese workers ate.

2. How did drinking hot tea help keep the Chinese workers healthy?

3. Why were the Chinese on the Central Pacific Railroad named "Crocker's Pets"?

4. Why were so many of the Chinese foods dried, salted or preserved?

****

The courage of the Chinese workmen in the mountains proved a real eye opener to the other men working for the Central Pacific.

When the Chinese first arrived on the scene, the white workers had greeted them with howling laughter and catcalls. Some of the whites swore that they would not work within a hundred yards of a "heathen Chinese." Others grumbled that the willingness of the Chinese to work for less pay held down their own wage scale.

The Chinese workmen were themselves organized into crews numbering twelve to twenty members. Each crew worked and lived together as a unit. They lived in tents or huts. They slept on simple wooden cots.

Each crew was led by a Chinese headman who kept discipline among his men. On pay days, the headman collected the wages for his entire crew, later distributing the money to each member. Most of the headmen could speak just enough English to do a little translating. But language rarely proved a problem. The Chinese workers learned quickly through watching others. Once shown how to do a job, they were fast to figure out the rest of it by themselves.

Each crew also hired its own Chinese cook. Imported Chinese groceries were sent up the line periodically by merchants in San Francisco. Each member of the crew shared in the cost of his food. For the Chinese workers, the main diet included dried oysters, abalone, bamboo shoots and bean sprouts, crackers and noodles, Chinese bacon, pork and poultry. To the Central Pacific's white workers, surviving on a diet of boiled beef, bread, potatoes, and coffee, the menus of the Chinese crews were a source of endless wonderment.

In addition, the Chinese drank tea by the gallons. Even while they worked, "tea boys" trotted up to the Chinese work gangs dispensing hot tea, transported in old whiskey barrels suspended from the ends of a long pole. Tea drinking, especially out where the quality of the drinking water was none too certain, had its advantages. Tea requires the water to be boiled, thus assuring that the water was safe for drinking. Besides, no one has ever been known to get drunk on tea, and the Chinese workers never suffered from morning-after hangovers.

One other thing about the Chinese amazed their fellow workers on the Central Pacific. Before supper each night, the members of the Chinese work crews lined up before barrels filled with warm water. Then, one after another, they stripped off their dirty clothing, bathed themselves, and changed into clean clothes. out in the rough and rugged West during those frontier days, such personal cleanliness

was considered somewhat unusual.

Indeed, to the casual observer, the Chinese work crews appeared to be disciplined, smooth-working human machines. They worked from dawn to dusk with few breaks and fewer complaints. They hardly ever seemed to get sick, or even tired.

The Chinese were good workers and Charles Crocker, one of the Superintendents of the Central Pacific Railroad, liked the way they worked. Whenever there was an important job to be done, he chose the Chinese because he felt they did a better job. The Chinese workers were soon called "Crocker's Pets," since he liked the Chinese workers the best.

****

THINGS TO THINK AND DO

1. Draw a table with some of the Chinese foods on it. Draw another table with the foods of the white workers on it.

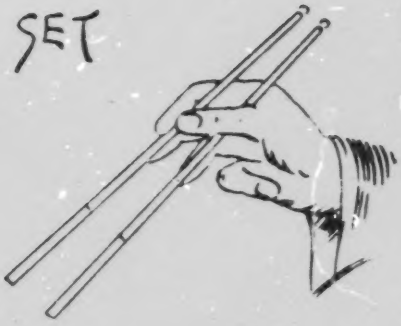
2. Imagine that you lived in times before there were refrigerators. Think of as many ways as possible to preserve your food or to keep it from spoiling. Then list eight foods which we use today that are preserved and do not need refrigeration.

3. Learn how to use chopsticks. Eat a complete meal at home with chopsticks in place of fork, knife, or spoon. Be sure the food is bite size in the manner in which Chinese foods are prepared.

(Text taken from Passage to the Golden Gate, pp. 59-61.)

GET READY

LIFTING
FLAT FOOD


SET

LIFTING
ODD BITS

GO

LIFTING ROUND
OBJECTS

LESSON TWELVE: ANTI-CHINESE MOVEMENT, 1870-1900

RESOURCES

- The Story of California, pp. 235-237
- Voices of the Californians, pp. 170-174
- Voices of Change, pp. 42-49
- Passage to the Golden Gate, Chapter 8

TEACHING OBJECTIVES

Cognitive level: To learn that unjust laws are often made for selfish reasons.

To learn that many discriminatory laws were passed against the Chinese.

To be able to distinguish between just and unjust laws.

To learn that Chinese were victims of violent hostility.

To learn that Chinese did not receive any basic protection under law.

To gain an insight to hardships experienced by the Chinese.

Affective level: Empathy for the Chinese under hostile conditions.

Experience the sense of injustice and indignation.

Gain a sense of respect for those individuals who survive under hostile conditions.

INTRODUCING THE LESSON

( ) Teacher/students: Review Student Study Sheet 7, "Anti-Chinese Movement, 1850-1870: Why the Chinese? What were the Chinese Laws?"

( ) Teacher/students: Also review the finished chart of restrictive laws against Chinese, Lesson 7.

( ) Teacher: "What two of the three types of unjust laws against Chinese were being passed after 1870?" Essential response: "Laws to keep out the Chinese from entering the United States . . . spiteful laws to punish or to make life difficult for Chinese already living in California."

( ) Students: Read and study reference texts for background information. The Story of California, pages 235-237, is recommended.

( ) Teacher: Read from Passage to the Golden Gate, Chapter 8, pages 85-93.

DEVELOPING THE LESSON

( ) Teacher/students: From the readings above, make a list of anti-Chinese laws, riots, other acts of violence. Use the chronology in the back of this guide as a quick-and-easy reference.

( ) Teacher/students: Write a Letter to the Editor of the local newspaper in which the incident occurred, protesting the violent acts or the injustices forced upon the Chinese population. Include:

1. the town or city of writing where the incident occurred; i.e., Marysville, Los Angeles, Chico, Truckee, San Francisco, etc.
2. the date of occurrence.
3. the name of the local newspaper, or an imaginary newspaper, such as, The Alta California, Sacramento Union, the Dutch Flat Enquirer, San Francisco Bulletin, etc.
4. a short account of what had occurred to which the protest letter is written.
5. the protest itself and a recommendation as to what should be done to correct the wrong.
6. the student signature of the writer.

Read some of the Letter to the Editor creative writing reports, with student permission, or ask for student volunteers to read aloud their composition.

( ) Teacher: Thermofax selected pictures of Chinese abuse and violence from Lucius Beebe's American West (Dutton, 1955), and ditto 10-12 sheets for student use. Write the Letter to the Editor below the dittoed picture. Display the finished product or file in folders.

( ) Students: Discuss the series of harassment and exclusion laws in a "brainstorming" session. Review how badly the Chinese were treated by Californians and try to account for such treatment on the basis of:

1. the depression of 1873 in California.
2. the adult population in California.
3. the growing impressions of Chinese as "different" and, therefore, inferior people.
4. the total lack of civil rights afforded the Chinese by city, state, and federal courts.
5. the fears of the people of anything "strange," unknown, or misunderstood about the Chinese.
6. etc.

( ) Teacher/students: Try to think of valid reasons for the Gold Rush saying " . . . not a Chinaman's chance!" What might have encouraged Californians to coin such a phrase?

Record student thoughts in a writing assignment after discussion to focus student thought in permanent form for file.

EVALUATION

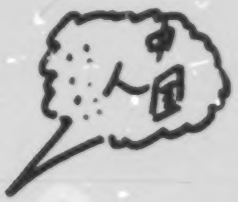
- Is there visible or verbal empathy for the Chinese experience?
- Based on acquired background learning, are the responses of the students, both orally and materially, more sophisticated and in-depth?
- Do you, as the classroom teacher, feel that the material can contribute to better human relations and interaction within the members of your class?

ALTERNATIVE EXPERIENCES FOR A VARIETY OF INTERESTS/ABILITIES

( ) Design short, snappy slogans that reflect the anti-Chinese sentiments of the 1870's to 1900's. For example, Denis Kearney's, "THE CHINESE MUST GO!" "The Yellow Peril, California for Americans, etc." Write these in felt pen on banner-shaped tagboard and cut out to display on class bulletin board. Write a short explanatory paragraph for each slogan.

( ) Color, cut out, and pose the two line drawings attached; one of the Chinese and the other of a Californian. Place in the hand of the Californian some object, such as a stick, mud, board, whip, etc., which is to be drawn and cut out. Pose the two figures so that the Californian is to the left and the Chinese is to the right of the composition paper. Paste the two figures onto colored or white composition paper. Sketch in a background scene in the mountains, city or town, Chinatown, etc.

Have the two figures talk to one another by words inside a bubble. Simulate Chinese writing for the Chinese as he speaks no English, or very little English.



Show-and-tell the action drama pictured, display for classroom examination and interest.

My name is _____ Date _____

INVENTING A SURVIVAL GAME (CHINESE)

Your Assignment: To invent a survival game to be played by a table group of no more than 4 players. The game will present a record of the hardships and sufferings of new Chinese immigrants to America and also their contributions and accomplishments to about 1890. You will make up definite game rules and methods of scoring/winning. The game sheet board will be designed in an attractive manner for display, as well as play.

General Suggestions for Inventing a Survival Game:

( ) The game will be played with dice, to show the number of spaces each player may advance. Two dice may be used but then some mathematical formula must be used. For instance, subtract the 2 numbers on the dice for the number of spaces to advance; multiply the 2 numbers and divide by a certain number; etc.

( ) The game sheet will be marked off with squares, which may take any direction on the sheet.

( ) There will be 2 packs of cards on the game sheet, which may be labeled "Good-Luck" or "Bad-Luck" cards, "Opportunity" and "Discrimination," "Legal" and "Illegal (Unconstitutional)," etc.

( ) You may make up money slips (play money) to use in paying taxes, buying and selling, paying bail to get out of jail, hiring lawyers to take a law suit to the U.S. Supreme Court, etc.

( ) The object of the game will be for you, as a Chinese immigrant, to do one of 2 things:

1. return to China a richer man than when you came to America.
2. unable to return to family and friends in China, be able to survive in America for 40 years.

SUGGESTIONS FOR MAKING A REALISTIC AND INTERESTING GAME SHEET:

In the game squares and in the card packs, the following information should come out in the playing of the game:

CONTRIBUTIONS/ACHIEVEMENTS

( ) served as merchants to miners during Gold Rush

( ) mined left-over gold fields for some gold

( ) hard workers, non-complaining

( ) builders of the Central Pacific Railroad

( ) agricultural workers

( ) San Francisco Bay fishermen

( ) cigar makers

( ) had the first sit-in at San Francisco jail against the Cubic Foot Law

( ) challenged the right to wear their hair long in the Queue Cutting Law

( ) factory workers of many types

( ) went to California and U.S. Supreme Courts to change discriminatory laws

DISCRIMINATION/PREJUDICE

( ) (See Anti-Chinese Laws chart.)

( ) name-calling and stereotyping Chinese as "undesirables"

( ) singled out for violence: beatings, hangings, arson, murder

( ) anti-Chinese riots in many Western towns/cities

( ) Chinatown ghettos

( ) lack of proper housing

( ) restricted employment opportunities

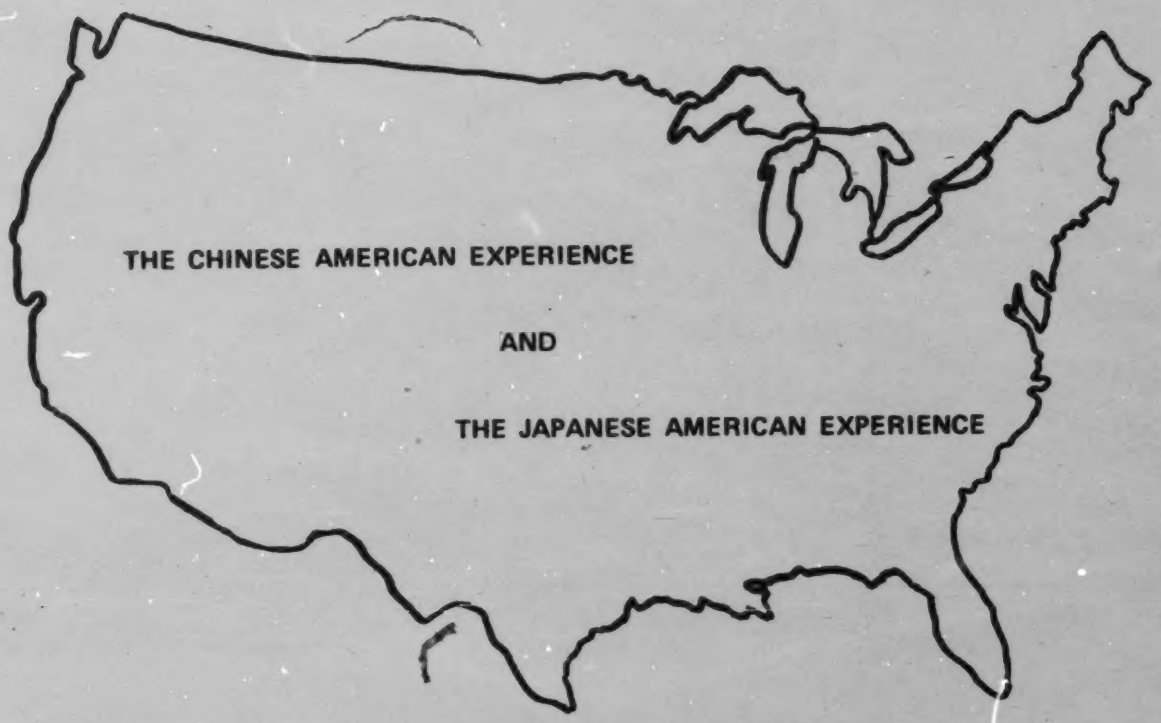
( ) segregated schools for Chinese children

( ) no recognition for work accomplished

JAPANESE

ASIAN AMERICAN STUDIES

ASIAN AMERICAN STUDIES PROJECT



THE CHINESE AMERICAN EXPERIENCE

AND

THE JAPANESE AMERICAN EXPERIENCE

ELEMENTARY GUIDE
INTERMEDIATE GRADES

RICHMOND UNIFIED SCHOOL DISTRICT

CURRICULUM PREPARATION

An Asian-American Curriculum Guide for the Richmond Unified School District was prepared by a team of teachers and students during a five-week period in the summer of 1972. The teachers and students who prepared the Guide included:

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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Richmond Alliance of Asian-Americans

1973

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PURPOSE

Traditionally, the course of study for United States history had omitted the significance and influence of persons of Asian ancestry. In order to provide a more realistic view of United States history, the hardships, struggles and contributions of Asians need to be revealed. A quick glance at a typical United States history textbook will show that there is little mention of the role played by Asian Americans in the past and present, although it is widely known that the lives of these people are intertwined in the story of the United States.

This guide provides an opportunity for students and teachers of all racial and ethnic backgrounds to gain a more in-depth perspective of United States history. Students will have a better understanding of other peoples who have made contributions to our society. Hopefully, misunderstandings will be dispelled and positive attitudes and values about Asian Americans will be acquired.

GOALS AND OBJECTIVES

GOALS AND OBJECTIVES

GOAL 1.0

To provide students with factual and conceptual knowledge related to the idea that anti-Asian prejudice, violence, and discriminations, which has heavily colored Asian-American history, were racially motivated.

Objective 1.1

At least 60 per cent of the students will orally or in writing identify and explain the racial factors involved in the anti-Chinese agitation, violence, and discriminations from the 1840's to the present.

Objective 1.2

At least 60 per cent of the students will orally or in writing identify and explain the racial factors involved in the anti-Japanese agitation, violence, and discriminations from 1900 to the present.

GOAL 2.0

To provide students with factual and conceptual knowledge related to the idea that Asian-Americans have responded to the hostilities of American society by utilizing elements of their Asian cultural heritage.

Objective 2.1

At least 60 per cent of the students will orally or in writing identify and describe those attitudes and values which the Chinese have used to meet the challenges of life in America.

Objective 2.2

At least 60 per cent of the students will orally or in writing identify and describe those attitudes and values which the Japanese have used to meet the challenges of life in America.

GOAL 3.0

To provide students with factual and conceptual knowledge related to the idea that Asian-Americans have responded to prejudice and discrimination with protest.

Objective 3.1

At least 60 per cent of the students will orally or in writing

identify and describe Japanese-American protests against low wages and working conditions in the fields, and in the railroad and mining camps throughout the American West.

Objective 3.2

At least 60 per cent of the students will orally or in writing identify and describe the efforts of Japanese-Americans to protest anti-Japanese agitation prior to World War II and their mass removal during the war.

Objective 3.3

At least 60 per cent of the students will orally or in writing identify and describe the efforts of Chinese-Americans to protest anti-Chinese agitation and discriminatory legislation.

Objective 3.4

At least 60 per cent of the students will orally or in writing identify and describe the efforts of Asian-Americans to support the cause of racial justice in the United States today.

GOAL 4.0

To provide students with factual and conceptual knowledge related to the idea that Asian-Americans have made significant contributions to the economic, political, social, and cultural growth of the United States.

Objective 4.1

At least 60 per cent of the students shall orally or in writing identify and describe the contributions of the Chinese to the development of mining, railroad building, and fishing in the Far West.

Objective 4.2

At least 60 per cent of the students shall orally or in writing identify and describe the contributions of the Japanese to the development of agriculture and floriculture in the western states.

Objective 4.3

At least 60 per cent of the students shall orally or in writing identify and describe the contributions of the Japanese to the growth of labor organization (unionization) in the United States, and especially the unionization of farm workers.

Objective 4.4

At least 60 per cent of the students will orally or in writing

identify and describe the contributions of Asian-Americans to science, architecture, education, and other professions in the United States.

Objective 4.5

At least 60 per cent of the students will orally or in writing identify and describe the contributions of Asian-Americans to furthering the cause of political justice in the United States (e.g., suits demanding full constitutional guarantees of rights and the Japanese-American efforts for the repeal of Title II of the McCarran Act).

HOW TO USE THE ASIAN-AMERICAN CURRICULUM GUIDE

HOW TO USE THE ASIAN-AMERICAN CURRICULUM GUIDE

The Asian-American Studies Curriculum Development Team has prepared a unique guide. It does not propose that a unit on Asian-American studies in the elementary schools be taught in isolation. Instead, the materials contained herein are correlated with the United States history textbooks currently in use at the intermediate grade level. Individual lessons are prepared so that they fit into the areas of the textbook where there is a lack of information on Asian American history. However, at the same time, a large majority of the lessons are self-contained so that they need not be used with any particular textbook.

The Guide is prefaced by a general statement of goals and objectives which teachers should attempt to achieve with respect to Asian American history in their United States history program. The lessons are arranged chronologically and topically. The teacher may present the lessons in the sequence suggested by the Table of Contents of this Guide or according to the topic cited in each lesson heading.

Each lesson is prefaced by a page suggesting (a) Resources; (b) Teaching Objectives; (c) Assignments and Activities for the lesson.

Included in the Guide are other materials which the teacher or student might find useful and enhancing: (a) Glossary; (b) The Chinese and Japanese in America: A Biography outlining the achievements and contributions of outstanding Asian-Americans; (c) The Chinese and Japanese in America: A Chronology; (d) Bibliography of Books on Chinese Americans; (e) Bibliography of Books and Periodicals on Japanese Americans; (f) List of books pertaining to Chinese and Japanese available in the Richmond Public Library; (g) Bibliography of Books on Multi-Racial Experience in America.

This initial guide on Asian American studies relates only to the Chinese and Japanese experience in the United States. However, the District anticipates that the experience of other Asian groups in the United States, namely, the Koreans and Filipinos, will be documented in subsequent curriculum writing projects.

This guide is prepared on an experimental basis and is subject to revision.

JAPANESE - ASIAN AMERICAN STUDIES

LESSON THIRTEEN: THE COMING OF THE JAPANESE TO AMERICA

RESOURCES

- The Story of California, Chapter 24, page 250
- Voices of Change, page 54
- MP 6099: Japan - Land and the People
- FS 4004: Japan
- FS 4389: Japan - An Island Nation
- FS 4495: Japan, Topography and General View of
- Study Prints 1614: Japan

TEACHING OBJECTIVES

To focus upon Japan as an insular nation and to relate it to California in location and distance.

To gain an overview of Japanese emigration to the United States.

To learn that most Japanese came to California to improve their economic condition.

To learn of the first Japanese farm colony established in the United States in 1869.

To discover the "smallness" of Japan in terms of land area, total arable farm lands and the limited number of crops harvested.

To appreciate the distance involved between Japan and California.

To gain insight into the traumatic experience that accompanies leaving one's native home and personal family for foreign lands and a better life.

To understand that immigrants came to the United States for differing reasons.

To become aware of the Japanese in California history - their hardships, difficulties and contributions.

INTRODUCING THE LESSON

( ) Teacher/students: Read the reference texts to lead into the coming of Japanese to California.

( ) Teacher: Direct class study of maps and mapwork:

1. using wall map, locate the islands of Japan and the country of China and emphasize both the "smallness" of Japan and the "largeness of China.
2. ask the students to search for another insular country in Asia, similar to the island nation of Japan.
   Essential response: Philippine Islands.
3. ask students if they can see a peninsular country in Asia.
   Essential response: Korea.
4. point out other Asian countries of interest:
   Formosa
   Okinawa
   Vietnam
   Thailand
   Burma
   etc.
5. Find the marked distance on the wall map between Tokyo-Honolulu-San Francisco. Write the distance on the chalkboard. Relate this distance to something closer to home:

   two times across the United States
   thirteen times the distance from Richmond to Disneyland, etc.

( ) Teacher/students: Record the above information on a commercial map of the Pacific. Include the following labels:

China
Japan
Korea
Philippines
Hawaii
San Francisco

Draw an imaginary line of passage from Tokyo, Japan, to Honolulu, Hawaii, thence to San Francisco.

Color the countries, color the Pacific Ocean light blue and mark the map as the Japanese migration to America, 1892-1924. Keep in folder or display on bulletin board.

DEVELOPING THE LESSON

( ) Teacher/students: Read the Student Study Sheet beginning with the focus questions. Organize the reading arrangement to facilitate reading and comprehension.

( ) Teacher: Develop guidelines for summarizing a lengthy reading assignment. Seek out District manuals, staff personnel, Robert's English Series, etc., for help in summarizing. Develop guidelines, such as:

1. skim the reading assignment and jot down topical themes:
   - Japanese emigration before 1885
   - Japanese emigration from 1885 to 1920
   - Japanese emigration from 1924 on

   or

   - Wakamatsu Colony
   - Japanese in California farming
   - Japanese in urban areas of California
   - Japantowns

2. lift the opening sentence of each paragraph in the text and expand on it
3. look for summarizing sentence in each paragraph and expand on it
4. etc.

( ) Teacher/students: Write the guidelines for summarizing on the chalkboard. Students will record the procedures individually on note paper. Discuss the process of summarizing so that student understanding is developed.

( ) Students: Summarize the accompanying Student Study Sheet. Edit for continuity of thought.

Student summaries may be tape recorded for class record or made into a class booklet as a creative writing assignment.

EVALUATION

- Are students beginning to look upon Asian Americans as human beings human beings with a historical background in California rather than as names and faces?

- What is the visible and/or verbal reaction of any Asian American student in your class to this supplement to California history? Their parents?

- Are you able to bring into the unit your creative, innovative teaching ideas to substitute or expand the content of a lesson?

JAPANESE IMMIGRATION

To be used with: The Story of California, Chapter 27
Voices of Change, page 54

STUDY QUESTIONS

1. Why did the first Japanese farm colony in California fail?
2. Between which years did most of the Japanese immigrants come to the United States?
3. For what reason did most Japanese immigrants come to the United States?
4. What law stopped the Japanese immigration to the United States?

****

The first Japanese immigration group arrived in San Francisco in 1869. This group of about 30 Japanese was led by a Dutchman, John Henry Schnell, who had lived in Japan for many years.

Schnell purchased 600 acres near Gold Hill in El Dorado County, California. He began a colony with mulberry trees for silk farming, bamboo shoots for food, tea and other plants from Japan. This farm colony lasted for less than two years. The weakened plants from the long journey did not grow in the dry soil. Schnell soon ran out of money and could not continue the farm colony. Some of the Japanese remained in the United States but many returned to Japan. In 1966, California recognized the arrival of the colony as an "historical event". The State has placed a State Historical Plaque in El Dorado County for the Wakamatsu Tea and Silk Farm Colony.

In 1873 there were 80 Japanese living in California. Most of them were working as servants in American homes. By 1890 there were 2,039 Japanese in the United States mostly living in San Francisco. Beginning in 1892 many Japanese began to arrive from Hawaii. They had gone there first to work in the sugar cane fields.

Most of the Japanese immigrants came to the United States between 1900 and 1924. In 1920, there were about 80,000 Japanese immigrants in the United States. After 1924 Japanese immigration stopped. The Congress of the United States passed the Immigration Act of 1924. This law prevented Japanese from coming to the United States.

The Japanese immigrants who arrived in early 1900's were mostly unmarried men. The main reason for coming to the United States was to seek their fortune. They did not leave Japan for religious or political freedom.

LESSON FOURTEEN: JAPANESE PIONEERS IN CALIFORNIA AGRICULTURE

RESOURCES

- The Story of California, Chapter 24, pp. 254-255
- Voices of Change, pp. 54-55
- Voices of the Californians, pp. 186-187
- MP 7636: Imperial Valley - Part 1
- MP 7637: Imperial Valley - Part 2
- FS 5261: Far Western States - Agriculture
- FS 0231: Imperial Valley

TEACHING OBJECTIVES

To read information in chart form.

To work in committees in accomplishing a class project.

To locate areas of California on a map.

To make a drawing of a Japanese farming family.

To gain a respect for the Japanese immigrant farmer who cultivated wastelands into productive farming areas.

To have empathy for the Japanese who faced the additional handicaps of discrimination.

To realize how much of California's success as a farming state is due to the pioneer work of the Japanese.

INTRODUCING THE LESSON

( ) Teacher/students: Discussion question: "Have you ever tried to start a garden and had problems? What were some of the problems?" List on chalkboard.

( ) Teacher/students: Discussion question: "Why is it important for farmers to first prepare the ground for farming?" Essential response: " . . . to be sure that the seeds will grow . . . to insure a good crop harvest . . . to take the rocks and stones out . . . etc."

( ) Teacher/students: Discussion question: "What else might a farmer do to his land to be able to grow crops?" Essential response: . . . bring water . . . add fertilizer . . . pull out the weeds . . . level the land . . . lots and lots of long, hard work . . . etc."

( ) Teacher/students: "What farm crops do you think are harvested from trees?" Essential response: " . . . apples . . . oranges . . . figs . . . peaches . . . pears . . . walnuts . . . etc."

( ) Teacher/students: "What farm crops grow on vines or bushes?" Essential response: " . . . grapes . . . tomatoes . . . blackberries . . . raspberries . . . cotton . . . etc."

( ) Teacher/students: "What farm crops grow close to the ground?" Essential response: " . . . spinach . . . celery . . . strawberries . . . mushrooms . . . lettuce . . . etc."

( ) Teacher/students: "What farm crops grow under the ground as roots of the plant? Essential response: " . . . turnips . . . potatoes . . . radishes . . . etc."

( ) Teacher/students: "What farm crops grow on stalks?" Essential response: " . . . wheat . . . corn . . . hops . . . barley . . . rice . . . etc."

DEVELOPING THE LESSON

( ) Teacher/students: Categorize the aforementioned farm crops and others into different levels of hand or stoop labor involved, such as:

1. farming requiring but one planting with yearly harvests (orchards, some berry farming)
2. crops requiring yearly planting and harvesting (wheat, rice, barley, hops, rooted plants)

3. Crops requiring hand picking (tree fruits, berries cotton, tomatoes, nuts, etc.)
4. farm crops which need to be cut (sugar beets, celery, wheat, rice, barley, hops, etc.)
5. stoop labor (bending over) involved in harvesting crop (strawberries, radishes, celery, lettuce, etc.)

( ) Teacher/students: Discuss and catalog all the factors that need to be considered in farming a successful crop; then, tally all the adverse conditions and situations that spell disaster for the farmer.

For a good harvest	For a poor or no harvest
1. sunny, warm weather	1. cloudy, cool, stormy weather
2. plenty of water	2. drought
3. money to buy supplies and tools	3. plant disease
4. good seed	4. lack of money
5. enough farm help	5. lack of help
6. etc.	6. poor farming land
	7. floods
	8. insect pests
	9. etc.

( ) Teacher/students: Discuss the likelihood of success or failure in farming as an occupation:

1. Did you find that there is a greater chance of success or failure in any given year in farming?
2. What are some things that might help or hinder the harvesting of a good crop?
3. If a farmer has a good crop for harvesting, what rewards might he receive from it?
   Essential response: ". . . feels good . . . buy a new truck or tractor . . . put the money in the bank . . . etc."
4. Why did many Californians and the Japanese go into farming as an occupation?
   Essential response: " . . . what they were doing before . . . only jobs available at the time . . . steady work . . . etc."

( ) Teacher/students: Discuss the life of a small-time farmer and what rewards or difficulties students see in entering this occupation:

1. Is the life of the farmer an easy one? Why, or why not?
2. Would the work of the small-time farmer in the early days of California been mainly hand work or machines?
3. What kinds of hand work do you think a farmer did in raising his crops?
   Essential response: " . . . hoeing . . . weeding . . . irrigating . . . picking . . . clearing land . . . etc."

4. Would you like to go into farming as a lifetime occupation? Why, or why not?

( ) Teacher/students: Read the accompanying Student Study Sheet, "Japanese Pioneers in California Agriculture," and activities.

EVALUATION

- Are students aware of the physical labor, the planning and preparation and the risks involved in successful farming?
- Do the students understand why Japanese immigrant farmers were not allowed to buy fertile farm lands?
- Can students relate to the added toil and labor that Japanese farmers expended to improve barren lands into farming lands?
- Do the students realize that they benefit today from the contributions of Japanese immigrant farmers in California?

My name is_____Date_____

JAPANESE PIONEERS IN CALIFORNIA AGRICULTURE

1. Why did immigrant Japanese farmers have to work on the worst lands in California?

2. Why did the white farmers dislike the Japanese farmers?

3. How were the Japanese prevented from buying farming land?

4. What is truck farming?

****

In the 1880's, only a few Japanese immigrants were working on California farms. It was not until 1898 that they began to work on the farms regularly. By 1909, as many as 30,000 were working on the farms. Most of them were farm laborers, but as many as 6,000 were farmers. In 1918, one out of every eight farmers was Japanese. They were producing more than 51 million dollars worth of crops. This was more than 10% of California's farming income.

The hope of every Japanese immigrant farm worker was to have his own farm. As soon as he saved enough money, he bought a plot of land. He was often forced to buy or rent land that was unwanted by white farmers. The Japanese could not buy good farmland. By hard work and a lot of patience, the Japanese farmers developed the worthless, barren land into fertile and productive farms. The Japanese worked hard to turn the poor land into useful and valuable land. The swampy marshlands of the San Joaquin and Sacramento Deltas were drained into potato and rice fields; the barren, dry lands of Vacaville were changed into fruit orchards. The dry, hot, alkali lands of Livingston were changed into vineyards; the sand dunes of Fresno became vegetable farms; the desert-like land of Southern California became orange groves.

As the Japanese immigrant farmers became successful, the white farmers became hostile. They found that Japanese farmers could produce more and better crops. In 1913, a law was passed in California to prevent the Japanese from buying or leasing farm lands.

In spite of all the hardships, the Japanese immigrant farmers continued to improve California's farming. It was the Japanese farmer that introduced truck farming in California. Truck farming is the raising of vegetables especially to be sold in the markets. In the early days of truck farming, the Japanese farmer loaded his truck with his vegetable crops and drove to the market to sell them. Truck farming by the Japanese was very successful. In 1938, Japanese farmers were still producing most of the vegetable crops in California.

The wealth of California has not been in gold and oil but in agriculture. California is the richest farming state. San Joaquin Valley is the world's richest valley and produces the most crops.

Today, the contributions of the Japanese pioneer farmers can still be seen. Successful Japanese-American farms are found in every major farming area in California.

The Japanese pioneer farmers and farm workers played very important roles in the development of the rich farm lands in California.

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THINGS TO THINK AND DO

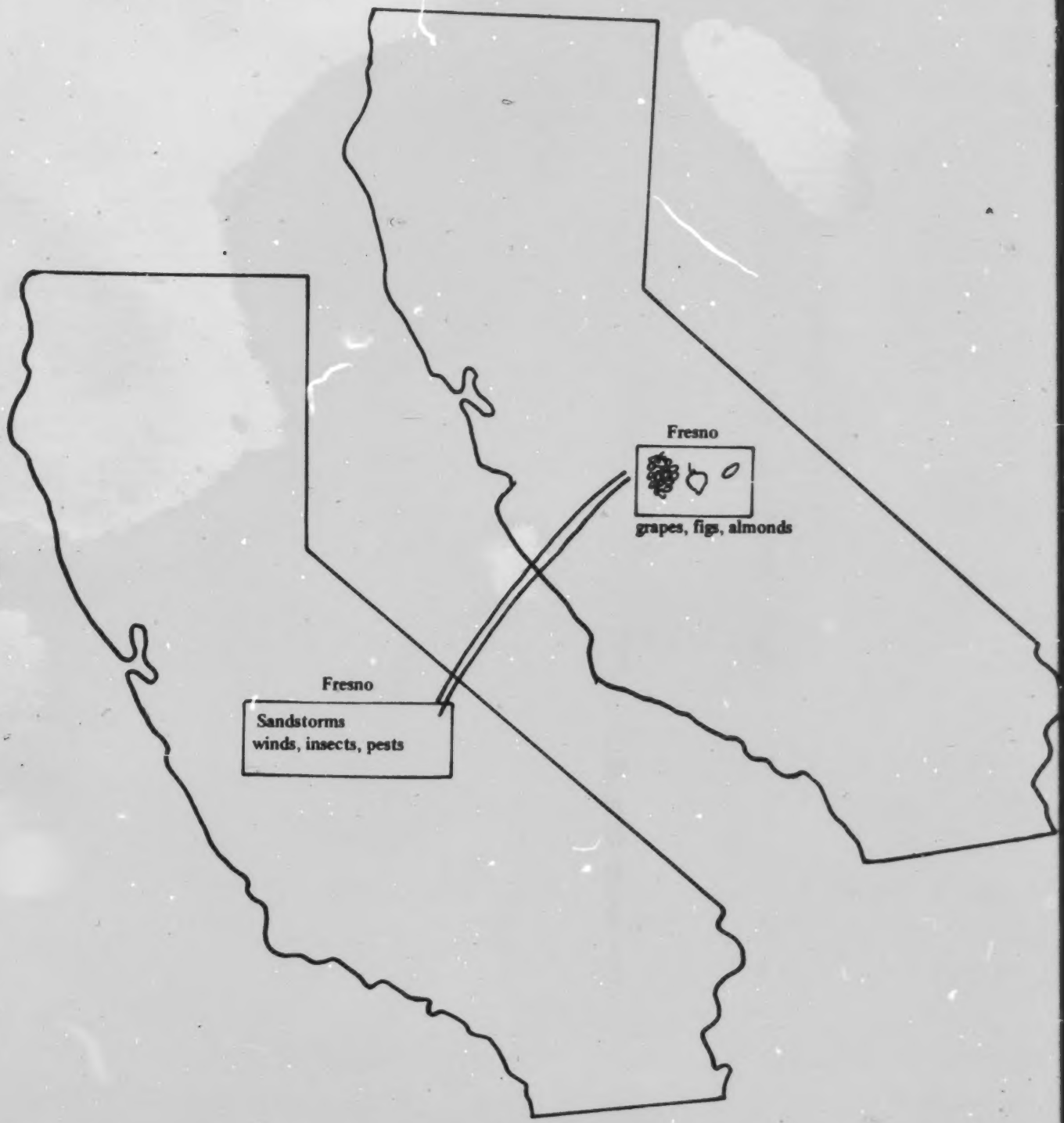
1. Have a class discussion to study the attached chart. In the first column the various farming areas of California are listed. In the second column the special problems that the Japanese farmers faced are listed. With hard work and determination the problems were overcome. The crops that were produced on the improved land are found in column three.

2. The teacher will have two large outline maps of California (both the same size) on the bulletin board side by side. The class will be divided into three work groups:

    a. Group one: Write the names of each farming area on a small card. Cut out small magazine pictures or small color drawings of the crops for each area. Paste the crop pictures on the cards. Pin the cards on the location on Map 2.

    c. Group three: Label the farming areas on both maps identically. Then, when the cards have been pinned on the maps, cut lengths of colored yarn. Pin the yarn to match the cards on Map 1 to the card on Map 2.

Example


Fresno
grapes, figs, almonds
Fresno
Sandstorms
winds, insects, pests

PIONEER JAPANESE FARMERS CONTRIBUTIONS TO CALIFORNIA AGRICULTURE

Location	Special Problems	Crops Produced
NORTHERN CALIFORNIA		
Butte, Colusa, Glenn and Yuba Counties	Swamps in some areas/brick-like alkali soil which no one wanted to cultivate.	Rice fields and vegetables
Walnut Grove	Swamps/too much water	Vegetables and fruits
Sacramento Valley	Swamps/too much water	Introduced rice fields
Vacaville	Hot and windy/irrigation canals built to water the dry and dusty soils.	Orchards
Contra Costa County	Hard adobe clay in soil/plants do not grow.	Strawberries and other fruits/tomatoes and peas.
Florin	Shallow topsoil/water does not soak in.	Vineyards and strawberry patches
CENTRAL CALIFORNIA		
San Joaquin Delta	Swamps	Potato/onion celery
Fresno, Livingston	Sand storms/high winds/insects, pests/ sand storms often buried plants under sand and had to be dug out by hand/ shallow topsoil	Grapes/figs/almonds/fruits
Reedly	Hilly ground had to be leveled	Grapes
Visalia	Sand storms/high winds/insects	Introduced peas
Dinuba	Sand storms/high winds/insects	Introduced watermelon
Delano	Sand storms/high winds/insects	Truck farming
Seville to Lemon Grove	Intense heat	Vineyards/citrus orchards

Location	Special Problems	Crops Produced
SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA		
Guadalupe, Santa Maria	The soil was so hard that the Japanese farmers had to dig the ground with picks and shovels and move boulders by hand.	Lettuce/truck farming
Los Angeles and Orange Counties	Hot/desert-like	Vegetables and berries
San Fernando Valley	Hot/desert-like	Citrus orchards
San Gabriel	Rocky hillsides/sandy soil	Vegetables
South El Monte	Alkali soil/very salty and brick-like, so plants do not grow.	Celery/berries (strawberries, blackberries, raspberries) Cauliflower

LESSON FIFTEEN: ANTI-JAPANESE MOVEMENT IN CALIFORNIA AND THE UNITED STATES

RESOURCES

- The Story of California, Chapter 27, page 276
- Voices of Change, page 54

TEACHING OBJECTIVES

To understand discrimination (the selection of a particular people for different and negative treatment) of the Japanese in California followed on the heels of the anti-Chinese movement.

To show apparent intent of the anti-Japanese movement was twofold: to restrict Japanese immigration into the United States and to regulate every aspect of life of the Japanese in America.

To learn that the President of the United States and the federal government became involved in Asian American agitation. Strained diplomatic relationships between Japan and the United States first develop.

To recognize organized civic, fraternal, labor, military, provincial, etc., groups working against the Japanese in California.

To learn the sense of helplessness and hopelessness in terms of the life experiences of Japanese immigrants in California.

To learn how a local discriminatory ruling escalated into an international crisis.

To learn that students need to continue inquiry into discrimination and prejudice directed toward Asians in America.

INTRODUCING THE LESSON

( ) Teacher/students: Make reference to Lesson 7, "The Beginnings of Anti-Chinese Movement, 1850-1870."

( ) Students: Review the three kinds of restrictive laws passed by city, state or federal government against Chinese. Student focus will be on the nature of the laws, such as:

1. Were the laws physically abusive?
2. Were the variety of laws harassing, meant to keep the Chinese on-their-toes?
3. What laws were devised to drive a Chinese out of business?
4. Were there laws that were meant to be humilating or degrading to the Chinese?
5. In what year, or years, were laws passed which deprived the Chinese of his civil rights to due process of law?
6. What laws tended to discourage further Chinese immigration to the United States?
7. Were laws developed which prevented the staying together of Chinese family units?
8. etc.

( ) Students: Recall from earlier lessons the reign of terrorism and violence which befell the Chinese in California.
Leading question: What reasons can you give for the behavior of Californians both in the laws passed and the physical treatment of Chinese?

( ) Teacher/students: Compare the initial phases of discrimination against Japanese with the spectrum of experiences incurred by the Chinese in America.

Chart the similarities or uniqueness on butcher paper for group input and maintain the chart as the study of Japanese experiences in America Progresses.

DEVELOPING THE LESSON

( ) Teacher/students: Read the referenced pages in the text. In The Story of California, call attention to the presence and contributions of black Americans and Mexican Americans as well as Chinese and Japanese-Americans in California agriculture. Draw out and expand upon the statements made in the text.

( ) Students: Read the Student Study Sheet for this lesson. Focus first on the study questions at the beginning of

the sheet for reading objectives. Be able to answer and or discuss the questions.

( ) Students: Returning to reference textbooks, read the last paragraph under the sub-heading sentence-by-sentence. Expand and explain the sentence in more specific terms.

For example: "After the war was over (First World War), the United States goverment passed a law that said that no more Japanese could come to this country." (The Story of California, p. 276).

Restated in more specific terms, the student should state, read, paraphrase from the appropriate paragraph in the Student Study Sheet.

( ) Students: Write spontaneously of whatever impressions you have of Japanese experiences in America to date.

As an alternative, reproduce Student Study Sheet 2 and students will complete the sentences with first-mind impressions.

With student permission, write selected sentences on adding machine tape and arrange in an attractive room display.

EVALUATION

- Has Asian American Studies, to date, been a lasting, learning experience for students based on recall and spontaneity of expression?
- Are students becoming more adept in handling abstract, in cerebral exercises dealing with hypothesis, analysis, summarization and conclusions.
- What opportunities are you providing, as instructional leader, for individual, group and/or class expression of student insight, perceptions and sensitivities?

ANTI-JAPANESE LAWS

To be used with: The Story of California, Chapter 27
Voices of Change, Page 54

STUDY QUESTIONS

1. What did the San Francisco School Board decide to do with the Japanese students in 1906?
2. Why couldn't a Japanese immigrant own land in California?
3. Name two rights that a white European immigrant had, but the Japanese immigrant did not.

****

As early as 1887, five years after the Chinese Exclusion Act, there were voices of hostilities against the Japanese. At this time, there were only 400 Japanese in California. Most Americans had never seen a Japanese.

After 1900, hostility against the Japanese increased. More Japanese immigrants were arriving in the United States. Hostile organized groups claimed that Japanese were evil, dirty and an inferior race.

In 1906, the San Francisco School Board decided that Japanese students could not attend the same school with the white children. The School Board required the Japanese students to attend the Oriental Schools with the Chinese and Korean Students. The Japanese government made a strong protest to the United States. The school problem was settled by letting the Japanese students attend any public school. Japan had to agree to send fewer immigrants to the United States. This agreement between Japan and the United States was called the Gentlemen's Agreement. This was the first attempt to prevent Japanese immigration.

In 1913, California passed a law called the Webb-Heney Act or Alien Land Law. This law prevented immigrants who were not allowed to become citizens from owning land. This meant that the Japanese, like the Chinese and Koreans, could not own land in California.

In 1924, the United States Congress passed an immigration law which prevented any Japanese immigrants coming to the U.S. No exceptions were made, not even for men who had served in the United States Armed Forces. This Immigration Act of 1924 caused many hardships among the Japanese families.

Being a Japanese immigrant in the United States meant that he did not receive the basic rights and protections that the white European immigrants received. It was not until 1947 that a Japanese could own land in California. It was not until 1952 that a Japanese could become a naturalized citizen in the United States.

****

ACTIVITIES

Do further research on the following laws:

1. The Webb-Heney Act or the Alien Land Law
2. Immigration Act of 1924
3. Gentlemen's Agreement of 1908
4. McCarrin-Walter Act of 1952

(Student Study Sheet #1 - Lesson 15)

My name is_____Date_____

JAPANESE AMERICAN EXPERIENCE: PUTTING IT ALL TOGETHER!

Instructions: The sentences below are incomplete. Read each sentence carefully and finish the sentence with the first idea that pops into your mind. Reread the sentence. If it satisfies you, go to the next one. Number each sentence, place an X, or a check in the parenthesis.

****

( ) The Japanese came to America . . .

( ) They worked . . .

( ) The Japanese proved themselves to be . . .

( ) One of the contributions of the early Japanese in America was . . .

( ) The Japanese farmer was . . .

( ) An anti-Japanese law was passed which . . .

( ) Being a Japanese immigrant in America meant that . . .

( ) I think the Japanese were . . .

( ) I hope America will . . .

(Student Study Sheet #2 - Lesson 15)

LESSON SIXTEEN: "A DAY WHICH WILL LIVE IN INFAMY . . ." AND THE JAPANESE AMERICANS

RESOURCES

- The Story of California, Chapter 28, pp. 288-297
- Voices of Change, page 56

TEACHING OBJECTIVES

To have students understand the military disaster that was Pearl Harbor in December 1941.

To have students explore the process of wartime hysteria immediately following the attack on Pearl Harbor.

To study the events leading up to the "rounding up," dislocation and internment of 112,000 Japanese aliens and citizens alike to relocation camps in America.

To develop the feelings engendered during the first months of World War II, America's involvement and participation.

To understand the degree of anti-Japanese feelings which had built up in California, and the catalyst that was Pearl Harbor which precipitated open and overt prejudice and racism against all Japanese in America.

To recognize the rapidity of events which culminated in the arrest, removal and internment of 112,000 Japanese in Washington, Oregon, California and parts of Arizona in 1942.

INTRODUCING THE LESSON

1. Review the fact that there had been earlier anti-Japanese feelings in California. For example: 1906, the San Francisco School Board decided that the Japanese or Chinese children could no longer attend the same schools as white children. This was an insult. Even though President Theodore Roosevelt later persuaded the school board to remove the law, the State of California later made another law that prevented Japanese people from buying farmland. These are only examples of anti-Japanese legislation.

2. Teacher tests students' understanding of the Pearl Harbor attack by orally asking the class: "What happened at Pearl Harbor?" "What can you tell about Pearl Harbor?"

3. For students to gain an understanding of the circumstances that surrounded the Pearl Harbor attack, have the class read orally or silently The Story of California, pages 288 to top of page 293.

   Emphasize the fact that:

   a. one of the largest shipyards was located here in Richmond
   b. Japan was becoming powerful with its military forces
   c. Americans feared that Japan might attack American territories where many big warships were stationed
   d. because of the fear and nervousness, American spotting stations were set up to watch for enemy planes
   e. there had been anti-Japanese feelings before this time. For example, in 1906 Japanese children in San Francisco were not allowed to go to school with white children. Also, there had been a number of exclusion laws which had prohibited Japanese immigrants from entering the U.S.

DEVELOPING THE LESSON

1. In The Story of California, read orally or silently, pages 293-294 about "Japan Attacked Pearl Harbor".

   Emphasize the fact that:

   a. after Pearl Harbor, U.S. declared war against Japan
   b. Americans on the West Coast (California, Oregon, Washington) became very nervous and afraid of attacks
   c. because the nervousness grew, there were many false alarms of attacks by the enemy, although there was nothing really happening
   d. it was the country of Japan that bombed Pearl Harbor, not the Japanese Americans living in the U.S.

2. On a wall map, locate Pearl Harbor near Honolulu and the West Coast States.

3. Discuss the difference between a Japanese person living in Japan and a Japanese American living in the U.S. Emphasize that a Japanese American is living in America by choice, may be an American citizen and is loyal to the American government.

4. Discuss how mass hysteria often sets in. If possible, choose an example from present day events or some experience that the students can find meaningful that may have occured in the community or at school. For example, a rumor may have been spread about a murder occuring near the school and everyone became hysterical although it was not based on fact. Or, during the earthquake scare of 1971, many people feared that California was going to break off into an island of its own, due to an earthquake that was supposed to take place. In actuality, the earthquake did not happen.

5. In The Story of California read orally or silently page 295 on "Japanese Americans had to Leave Their Homes". Emphasize that the text does not tell the complete story and that additional reading and information is provided to tell the rest of the story.

6. Make copies and distribute the following reading sheets.

WHY THE JAPANESE WERE EVACUATED

(to be used with The Story of California, p. 276, and/or Voices of Change, P. 56-58)

STUDY QUESTIONS

1. Define issei and nisei.

2. What does evacuate mean? Why did the U.S. Government want the Japanese evacuated?

3. Even though the Japanese could not stand the idea of going to relocation camps, why did they decide to go to camp anyway?

****

When the news of the Pearl Harbor attack came over the radio, Americans were shocked and horrified that Japan would dare attack the U.S.

Naturally, the Japanese Americans also shared the shock and horror. In addition, the Nisei (Japanese Americans born here and were citizens) were afraid. They knew that they were American citizens loyal to the U.S. but they were afraid that their white friends might question them. The Issei (Japanese born in Japan who came to live in U.S. but were not allowed to become citizens) were upset because now they would be seen as an enemy although they had come to live in America by choice and considered themselves Americans.

Japanese Americans could only wonder, "how could Japan do such a thing?" "Now what would happen to the Japanese in America?" Every Japanese in America was fearful of mistreatment by whites. Many stared at them and called them names. Japanese children did not want to go to school because they would be made fun of by other children. In some areas, the Japanese were terrorized, and some were even shot and killed.

Rumors were started about the Japanese Americans having a spy ring, but no one could ever disclose a spy ring because there never was one. Another rumor was that Japanese Americans were secretly getting ready to

attack the U.S. and that they had their uniforms hidden under their beds. Even though there were wide-spread rumors like these not a single case was ever found where a Japanese-American was planning or doing anything disloyal to the U.S. government.

Many anti-Japanese groups demanded that the Japanese be removed from (evacuated) their homes on the West Coast and sent to relocation camps. Some even wanted them sent back to Japan! This just did not seem right and especially for the many Japanese Americans who had been born in America and were American citizens.

The day arrived in 1942 when persons of Japanese ancestry were ordered to leave their homes. No court of law would help the Japanese. Although the Japanese hated the idea of being evacuated and sent to relocation camps, the Japanese decided to follow the directions of the U.S. government because they might think that the Japanese Americans were not loyal to America. So the Japanese went to camp and not because they wanted to go but because they had to prove to the U.S. government that they were loyal.

****

ACTIVITIES

1. Imagine that you were a member of a Japanese family. You were with you family driving home from grocery shopping and the car radio was on a favorite station. An emergency news broadcast suddenly announced the bombing of Pearl Harbor by Japan. Describe how you felt and what it was like to hear the news.

2. If you were a Nisei in the time of World War II, would you have gone willingly to a relocation camp? Write a short paragraph to tell why or why not. Think about your decision before you start.

3. Because white Americans were fearful of the Japanese, rumors against the Japanese spread quickly throughout the West Coast. To show how rumors develop the class will play a game. The teacher will whisper a few sentences into the ear of one student. That student tries to whisper the same message to the next student and so on. When 6 or 8 students have heard the message, have the last student tell to the class what he heard or thought he heard. For sure, it will not be the same message

that the teacher whispered to the first student. Each student most likely changed or added to the message without meaning to do that. This is how rumors spread and especially in times of fear and when people's minds are afraid.

My name is _____ Date _____

JAPANESE AMERICAN EXPERIENCE: HOW WERE JAPANESE AND JAPANESE AMERICANS LIVING ON THE PACIFIC COAST LOCATED, REMOVED AND PLACED IN RELOCATION CAMPS DURING WORLD WAR II, 1942-1946?

Instructions: In the list of events that led to the imprisonment of Japanese Americans, read first what took place; then, fill in the date (month and day) on the blank line. Your teacher will assist you in doing this. When all dates have been filled in, compute the time interval between dates; for example, the number of days between February 19, 1942 and March 2, 1942 is 12 days, or almost 2 weeks. When completed, look again at how quickly the events took place that placed Japanese Americans in relocation camps in 1942.

****

YEAR	DATE	TIME INTERVAL	EVENT
1941	Dec. 7	00 days	Japan attacks Pearl war between Japan and USA
1941	(Dec. 11)	_____	1,370 Japanese in America arrested by the FBI and held under guard. Included priests, businessmen, officers of Japanese organizations, newspaper editors, Japanese language teachers.
1941	(Dec.29)	_____	Japanese Americans ordered to turn in all radio transmitters, short-wave radios and certain types of cameras to local police.
1942	(Jan.1)	_____	Surrender of all firearms of any kind ordered by Department of Justice.
1942	(Jan, 6)	_____	Agreement between Department of Justice and the Army to: (1) have restricted zones in Pacific Coast states (2) move out enemy aliens from them (3) carry out raids on homes of enemy aliens to search for illegal articles.
1942	(Jan. 14)	_____	President Roosevelt signed an order for registration of all enemy aliens during week of February 2. FBI raids of homes and businesses authorized.

YEAR	DATE	TIME INTERVAL	EVENT
1942	(Jan. 29)	_____	Department of Justice issued first of a series of orders setting up prohibited areas from which "all German, Italian, and Japanese alien enemies are to be completely excluded."
1942	(Jan. 31)	_____	Additional 69 prohibited areas in California announced, with aliens to leave by February 15.
1942	(Feb. 2)	_____	Dawn raid by FBI agents and Army of Terminal Island in Southern California. 400 Japanese rounded up, homes searched for contraband, men taken away for questioning.
1942	(Feb. 3)	_____	Department of Justice announces some areas of Washington and Oregon as prohibited areas from which enemy aliens were to be excluded.
1942	(Feb. 13)	_____	West Coast congressmen write President Roosevelt urging "immediate evacuation of all persons of Japanese lineage... aliens and citizens alike" from "entire strategic area" of California, Oregon and Washington.
1942	(Feb. 14)	_____	General John L. DeWitt, commander of Western Defense Command, asks Secretary of War, Henry L. Stimson to remove "Japanese and other subversive persons" from West Coast areas.
1942	(Feb. 19)	_____	President Roosevelt signs Executive Order No. 9066 establishing "military areas" and excluding from them "any and all persons "Japanese ."
1942	Feb. 20	_____	Stimson appoints DeWitt as military commander to carry out removal of Japanese Americans under Executive Order No. 9066.
1942	(Feb. 24)	_____	All enemy aliens ordered to restrict their travel and to obey curfew laws.

YEAR	DATE	TIME INTERVAL	EVENT
1942	(March 2)	_____	DeWitt's Public Proclamation No. 1 sets up western half of three West Coast states and southern third of Arizona as military area.
1942	(March 18)	_____	President Roosevelt's Executive Order No. 9102 establishes the War Relocation Authority to aid Japanese removed under Executive Order No. 9066.
1942	(March 22)	_____	First big group of Japanese, aliens and citizens, moved from Los Angeles to Manzanar Assembly Center.
1942	(March 23)	_____	DeWitt's Civilian Exclusion Order No. 1 removes all Japanese Americans living on Bainbridge Island, Puget Sound, Washington, to Puyallup Assembly Center within seven days.
1942	(March 27)	_____	DeWitt's Public Proclamation No. 4 halts all voluntary migration of Japanese from the military areas.
1942	(April 7)	_____	Governors from ten western states meet at Salt Lake City with Army and War Relocation Authority officials. Governors protest resettlement of Japanese in their states.
1942	(May 8)	_____	First group of Japanese Americans reach Gila River Relocation Camp near Parker, Arizona.
1942	(May 27)	_____	First group of Japanese Americans arrive at Tule Lake Relocation Camp in Northern California.
1942	(June 1)	_____	Manzanar Assembly Center becomes Manzanar Relocation Camp in California.

YEAR	DATE	TIME INTERVAL	EVENT
1942	(Aug. 7)	_____	General DeWitt announces that 110,000 people of Japanese blood have been removed from their homes.
1942	(Nov. 3)	_____	Final group of Japanese Americans from Fresno Assembly Center arrives at Jerome (Arkansas) Relocation Camp.
TOTAL NUMBER OF DAYS (Approximate)		_____	(NOTE: Total number of days 30 = NUMBER OF MONTHS TO COMPLETE REMOVAL OF JAPANESE AMERICANS.)

LESSON SEVENTEEN: "FROM WAR HYSTERIA, RACISM, AND ECONOMIC GREED . . . AMERICA'S RELOCATION CAMPS."*

RESOURCES

- The Story of California, Chapter 28, page 295
- Voices of Change, page 56

TEACHING OBJECTIVES

To have student understand the process of removal from home to relocation camp.

To identify and locate the ten permanent relocation camps during 1942-1946.

To find out what the organization and management of relocation camps was like.

To inquire into the adjustment problems of Japanese Americans in relocation camps.

To develop some rationale for "Why the Japanese were removed?"

To develop some understanding of the dilemma in which Japanese Americans found themselves in at the beginning of World War II.

To develop student concern for the right or wrong of removal and internment of Japanese and Japanese Americans during the war.

*Abstract from the original wording for the plaque to be placed at the Manzanar (Relocation Camp, California) historical monument, presented to Landmarks Registration Committee, State Department of Parks and Recreation (California) by Manzanar Committee, JACL.

INTRODUCING THE LESSON

( ) Students: Reread the selection, "JAPANESE-AMERICANS HAD TO LEAVE THEIR HOMES," from reference text. Make a list of vocabulary words that deal with "leaving their homes;" such as,

leave . . . false alarms . . . confusion . . .
harm . . . fear . . . unfairly . . . proof . . .
wrong . . . enemy . . . attack . . . forced . . .
sell . . . move . . . inland . . . far . . .
ugly . . . uncomfortable . . . camps . . .
surrounded . . . barbed wire . . . guarded . . .
etc.

Do these words carry a feeling of satisfaction and contentment among any group of peoples? Why, or why not?

( ) Students: Tell life experiences involving the moving of your family and yourself from one section of the city to another, from one city to another city in the same state or from state to state.

( ) Poll the class on general feelings involved in the task of moving away. Is it generally a positive or a negative life experience? Would adults in the family feel almost the same as their children? Document these feelings in a short writing experience. Keep in folder for later reference.

DEVELOPING THE LESSON

( ) Teacher: Reproduce Student Study Sheet 1, attached, on Thermo-Fax and ditto in classroom quantities for student use. "Japanese American Experience: Why Were the Japanese Removed from the Pacific Coast?"

( ) Teacher/students: Read the assignment above in any way for student comprehension. Answer study question.

( ) Teacher/students: Project the attached "Civilian Exclusion Order No. 5," dated April 1, 1942, on an opaque projector, or thermo-fax/ditto copies for student use. Skim and study the document.

( ) Teacher: Reproduce Student Study Sheet 2, 3 and 4 in classroom quantities for student use.

( ) Teacher/students: Read the assignments above in any way for student comprehension, answer study questions and do optional student activities.

My name is _____ Date _____

Japanese American Experience: Why Were the Japanese Removed from the Pacific Coast?

1. Name three reasons why the Japanese were removed and interned in American relocation camps.

2. Was there any truth in the statement of General John L. DeWitt that "the resident Japanese were in danger of mob violence . . ." and that he acted "to protect them . . .?" Explain.

****

The mass removal of all Japanese, citizens and aliens alike, from the Pacific coast states of Washington, Oregon, California and the western half of Arizona into relocation camps during World War II was the result of many forces and pressures operating upon the Japanese Americans. Previous to Pearl Harbor, there had been many years of continuing anti-Japanese feelings and behavior on the part of white Americans. In 1913, white farm groups secured the signing of the Alien Land Law, preventing Japanese immigrants from owning or leasing farm land. In 1907 and again in 1924, anti-Japanese groups succeeded in excluding (keeping out) all Asians from the United States. For years, labor unions excluded Asians from membership and housing and job discrimination was a common practice. In the months following the bombing of Pearl Harbor, all of these fears and prejudices were directed against the Japanese Americans.

When war finally came between Japan and the United States, the old anti-Japanese pressure groups leaped into action to support the campaign to remove or permanently get rid of the Japanese.

The reasons given for removal of all Japanese Americans were many and various. Some claimed that Japanese farmers farmed their fields purposely near airports, telegraph wires, airplane factories, Navy bases and along the coast in order to carry out sabotage and spy work. Some others demanded removal of the Japanese Americans in order to keep California a "white man's country." Still others admitted that to kick the Japanese out of California was not due to fear of sabotage, but more so that they could take over and gain control of the rich and fertile farmlands that the Japanese had built up over the years. Other rumors spread during this time were that the Japanese Americans were secretly getting ready to attack the United States and that they had their uniforms and weapons hidden under their beds. Even though these rumors were widespread, not a single case of sabotage or disloyalty to the United States was ever recorded.

The United States Army in the person of General John L. DeWitt recommended the removal of all Japanese from the Pacific coast. The explanation given at the time was "military necessity," although what this meant was not clear. General DeWitt also stated that the Japanese Americans were in danger of mob violence and that he acted, in part, to protect them. It was true that every

Japanese in America was fearful of mistreatment by Americans. White Americans stared at them and called them dirty names. Japanese Americans lost many of their former white friends; businesses would not sell them things that they needed; banks would not lend the Japanese Americans money; and Japanese children did not want to go to school because they were made fun of or threatened. In some areas of California, both in the city and in the farming areas, Japanese Americans were terrorized by beatings, fires set on purpose, rock-throwing, and some were even shot and killed.

(FACSIMILE) *

Civilian Exclusion Order No. 5

WESTERN DEFENSE COMMAND AND FOURTH ARMY
WARTIME CIVIL CONTROL ADMINISTRATION

Presidio of San Francisco, California

April 1, 1942

INSTRUCTIONS

TO ALL PERSONS OF

JAPANESE

ANCESTRY

LIVING IN THE FOLLOWING AREA:

All that portion of the City and County of San Francisco, State of California, lying generally west of the north-south line established by Junipero Serra Boulevard, Worchester Avenue, and Nineteenth Avenue, and lying generally north of the east-west line established by California Street, to the intersection of Market Street, and thence on Market Street to San Francisco Bay.

All Japanese persons, both alien and non-alien, will be evacuated from the above designated area by 12:00 o'clock noon, Tuesday, April 7, 1942.

No Japanese person will be permitted to enter or leave the above described area after 8:00 a.m., Thursday, April 2, 1942, without obtaining special permission from the Provost Marshal at the Civil Control Station located at:

1701 Van Ness Avenue
San Francisco, California

The Civil Control Station is equipped to assist the Japanese population affected by this evacuation in the following ways:

1. Give advice and instructions on the evacuation.

2. Provide services with respect to the management, leasing, sale, storage or other disposition of most kinds of property including: real estate, business and professional equipment, buildings, household goods, boats, automobiles, livestock, etc.

3. Provide temporary residence elsewhere for all Japanese in family groups.

4. Transport persons and a limited amount of clothing and equipment to their new residence, as specified below.

(over)

*Copy of the original document

(FACSIMILE)

THE FOLLOWING INSTRUCTIONS MUST BE OBSERVED:

1. A responsible member of each family, preferably the head of the family, or the person in whose name most of the property is held, and each individual living alone, will report to the Civil Control Station to receive further instructions. This must be done between 8:00 a.m. and 5:00 p.m., Thursday, April 2, 1942, or between 8:00 a.m. and 5:00 p.m., Friday, April 3, 1942.

2. Evacuees must carry with them on departure for the Reception Center, the following property:

(a) Bedding and linens (no mattress) for each member of the family;

(b) Toilet articles for each member of the family;

(c) Extra clothing for each member of the family;

(d) Sufficient knives, forks, spoons, plates, bowls and cups for each member of the family.

(e) Essential personal effects for each member of the family.

All items carried will be securely packaged, tied and plainly marked with the name of the owner and numbered in accordance with instructions received at the Civil Control Station.

The size and number of packages is limited to that which can be carried by the individual or family group.

No contraband items as described in paragraph 6, Public Proclamation No. 3, Headquarters Western Defense Command and Fourth Army, dated March 24, 1942, will be carried.

3. The United States Government through its agencies will provide for the storage at the sole risk of the owner of the more substantial household items, such as iceboxes, washing machines, pianos and other heavy furniture. Cooking utensils and other small items will be accepted if crated, packed and plainly marked with the name and address of the owner. Only one name and address will be used by a given family.

4. Each family, and individual living alone, will be furnished transportation to the Reception Center. Private means of transportation will not be utilized. All instructions pertaining to the movement will be obtained at the Civil Control Station.

Go to the Civil Control Station at 1701 Van Ness Avenue, San Francisco, California, between 8:00 a. m. and 5:00 p. m., Thursday, April 2, 1942, or between 8:00 a.m. and 5:00 p.m., Friday, April 3, 1942, to receive further instructions.

J. L. DeWitt
Lieutenant General, U. S. Army
Commanding

See Civilian Exclusion Order No. 5

WHAT WAS LIFE LIKE IN A RELOCATION CAMP?

(To be used with: The Story of California, page 295
Voices of Change, page 56)

STUDY QUESTIONS

1. What does relocation mean?
2. How many people of Japanese ancestry were relocated?
3. Describe the living quarters at the relocation camps.

****

In 1942, the President enacted an Order. It ordered the evacuation of more than 110,000 people of Japanese ancestry. Evacuation is the forced removal of people from their homes. These people had to leave their homes on the West Coast because of their Japanese ancestry. The people that received the order to leave their homes were given three days to get ready.

No one could take any of their larger belongings with them. They could not take furniture, beds, bicycles or pets. Items such as cameras and kitchen knives were not allowed because the government thought the Japanese would misuse them. Sometimes the things the Japanese left behind were stolen. They had to destroy all their books written in Japanese. As a result, the people that were evacuated lost most of their property. They were only allowed to take a few essentials, a few clothes and whatever else they could carry. They were forced to pack these things in a hurry because the order provided little time. They had to put their baggage on the sidewalk and wait for the buses or trucks to take them to the Assembly Centers.

(Student Study Sheet #2 - Lesson 17)

No one knew for sure what was going to happen to their family. They did not know where they would be sent or even if the family was going to be together. This uncertainty of their future caused fear and deep concern.

First, they were taken to Assembly Centers. After a few months, they were again moved, to Relocation Camps which were away from the West Coast. These camps were located in Arizona, Idaho, Wyoming, Colorado, Utah, Arkansas and California. All of these camps were located in isolated areas, far from towns and cities. Most of the camps were in deserts. It was hot, and the wind blew the dust and sand into everything. There were insects and mice in these camps.

The people had only tar paper barracks. These barracks were small and had to be shared by more than two families. Each section of the barracks was not much bigger than a large closet. Usually, there was only a thin cloth which divided the barrack into sections for each family. No one had any privacy. Every little noise could be heard by everyone. This made it very difficult to get sleep at night.

Around the camp, there were barbed wire fences and guard posts with guards and machine guns. One could not go anywhere without being watched by guards. No one was allowed to leave the camp. Once in a while, special permission was given to some people to leave for a very short time in an emergency or for a funeral.

Everyone had to get in long lines for their food, to use the bathrooms and to wash their clothes. They had to wait a long time in every line. They were only given a small amount for each meal. The food they were given did not even taste good. Each morning everyone had to line up for roll call outside their barracks.

They had to live under these conditions for about three years. While the Japanese Americans were being held inside these camps, the fear and nervousness of the many Americans which caused the imprisonment of the Japanese was continuing. Today, there is no one living in the places of the old relocation camps. They are just abandoned.

After the end of the war, Japanese Americans returned home to start a new life but many were not always welcome. When the Japanese returned home, many found that their property had been stolen or destroyed. Many homes were lost.

Although most Japanese Americans have managed to make a living and become a part of American life, the memory of the evacuation experience will always linger. The Japanese Americans will always wonder if the evacuation experience will happen to them again.

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ACTIVITIES

1. Japanese families had to make arrangements to leave many things behind before they left for camp. Divide a piece of construction paper in half with a pencil and a ruler. On one side, label it "I HAVE TO LEAVE THESE THINGS BEHIND." On the other side, label it "I MAY PACK THESE THINGS TO TAKE TO CAMP." From colorful magazines, cut out and paste pictures to fit under each title. Display on bulletin boards with the heading "Getting Ready for Camp."

2. On a map, locate the States in which the relocation camps were set up. Notice that they are in remote, isolated areas.

3. Draw a picture of a relocation camp as seen from the outside. Include the guards, barbed wire, watch towers, warning signs and desert-like surroundings. Label your drawing with a sentence or two of your own which describes the camp.

ORGANIZATION OF A RELOCATION CAMP

(to be used with: The Story of California, pp. 295)

STUDY QUESTIONS

1. Why weren't the relocation camps suited for family living?
2. Who guarded the camps? How?
3. How much were evacuees paid for the different kinds of jobs?
4. Who was the project director?

****

There were ten relocation camps in the United States. Each camp had a population from 7,000 to 20,000. Each camp was like a strange city that grew overnight in a wasteland. The camps had many problems like any other city, but they had many special kinds of problems.

Besides the housing problems, there were the problems of feeding the whole camp, employment and wages, camp government, camp security, medical care, schools, recreation and religious worship.

Housing was a problem from the beginning. The camps were built by army engineers and were like temporary army camps. The wooden barracks were about 100 feet long, tar-paper covered, had no running water and no heat. The barracks were grouped into blocks. Each block had two rows of six or seven barracks each. Between the rows of barracks were a mess hall, a building used for laundry, toilet and bath. The families were to sleep in the barracks, eat in the mess hall, wash clothes, bathe and go to the toilet in the laundry-toilet and bath building. The camps were designed for soldiers, not families.

(Student Study Sheet #3 - Lesson 17)

The Army purchased the food for all the camps. The Army spent less than fifteen cents for each meal. Everyone in the whole camp had the same food for breakfast, lunch and dinner. The menu was planned at the camp headquarters. The meals were not very tasty but edible.

Since the camp was like a city, hundreds of jobs had to be filled by the evacuees: cooks, truck drivers, mailmen, secretaries, garbage collectors, firemen, nurses, teachers, doctors, dentists and many others, workers were paid $12.00 to $19.00 per month, depending on the type of work. Japanese American dentists and doctors were paid $19.00 per month, but the caucasian doctors in the camps were paid several hundred dollars per month.

Each camp was headed by a caucasian civilian who was called the project director. He had about 100 caucasian assistants to help him. Japanese American evacuees worked under these assistants.

A few camps had elected camp councils. The camp council made new camp rules and enforced them. The project director was the boss and had the final say.

Block managers were appointed for each block by the project director. The block manager had three main duties: 1) to announce the latest rules from the project director, 2) to supervise his block, 3) to provide everyday supplies for his blocks, such as mops, soap and brooms.

Medical and dental services were provided in the camp hospital. The hospital was supervised by a caucasian doctor but staffed by the Japanese American doctors and nurses. The Japanese American doctors and nurses were well trained. They had attended the finest medical schools, such as the University of California Medical School and the Stanford Medical School.

Schools were started in all the camps. Classes were held in the barracks. For the first year or more, the schools did not have chairs, desks, books, chalkboards and other supplies. Students sat on the floors and huddled close together during the winter to keep warm. In spite of difficult conditions, students were eager to learn and the teachers did their best to help them.

To make camp life more bearable, evacuees in the camps organized recreational activities. Baseball was one of the most popular sports. Many teams were organized for all the groups. Other activities included judo, Japanese drama, flower arrangement and arts and crafts.

There were no separate churches within the camps. A barrack was provided for religious services for all church groups. Individuals were free to worship as they pleased.

The camp life was not good for evacuees. Everyone had to lead a very restricted life. There was little privacy for anyone. Everyone was told when to get up, when to eat and when to sleep. There was no time for families to do things together. Even at meal time, families rarely ate together. The most difficult thing of all while living in a relocation camp was the loss of individual freedom and privacy.

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ACTIVITIES

1. Work Study: define the following using a dictionary.
    1. barrack
    2. evacuees
    3. mess hall
    4. relocation
2. Draw a picture of camp life.

Name, Location & Maximum Capacity of Each Center

1 TULE LAKE, California (16, 000)

2 MANZANAR, California (10,000)

3 POSTON, Arizona (20,000)

4 GILA RIVER, Arizona (15,000)

5 TOPAZ, Utah (10,000)

6 MINIDOKA, Idaho (10,000)

7 HEART MOUNTAIN, Wyoming (10,000)

8 GRANADA, Colorado (8,000)

9 ROHWER, Arkansas (10,000)

10 JEROME, Arkansas (10,000

LESSON EIGHTEEN: RETURNING HOME

RESOURCES

- The Story of California, Chapter 28, pp. 294-297;
  Chapter 31, pp. 325-326
- Voices of Change, pp. 56-59

TEACHING OBJECTIVES

To review several reasons that made it possible for Japanese and Japanese Americans to leave camps to return home or seek new lives elsewhere in the United States.

To gain an understanding of the initial difficulties and unforseen hardships of resettlement outside of the relocation camps.

To review some laws passed by the United States Government since 1945.

To share a multitude of feelings experienced by returning or relocating Japanese Americans.

To gain an empathy with the Asian American as an individual with unique cultural and historical experiences in America.

INTRODUCING THE LESSON

( ) Teacher: Research further and mention the contributions of Japanese Americans in the armed forces of the United States, both men and women, during World War II.

EMPHASIS: The 442nd Regimental Combat Team and the 100th Battalion; Japanese Americans fighting in the Pacific war as valuable translators, interpreters and interrogators; Japanese American women serving in the Women's Army Corps and Nurses' Corps.

( ) Teacher: Make mention of the fact that by the end of 1944 and the beginning of 1945, the war in the Pacific against Japan had turned in favor of the overwhelming military might of America. At home, there was no further need to regard Japanese and Japanese Americans as potential enemy saboteurs and to confine them to relocation camps.

DEVELOPING THE LESSON

( ) Teacher/students: Type-and-ditto, project-and-show, read aloud-and-discuss, etc. Student Study Sheet 1. Design some method of extracting student feelings and impressions from the reading.

( ) Teacher/students: Read Study Sheet 2. Discuss content for comprehension and evaluation.

My name is _____ Date _____

JAPANESE AMERICAN EXPERIENCE: WHAT KINDS OF WELCOME DID THE JAPANESE AMERICANS RECEIVE DURING THE FIRST SIX MONTHS AND AFTER OF 1945?

Some 110,000 Japanese and Japanese Americans had been removed from Washington, Oregon, California and the western half of Arizona in 1942. By the time the exclusion orders had been cancelled on January 2, 1945, only half that number remained in the camps. The others had quietly applied for leave from camp, been checked by the Army and had been allowed to depart for colleges and universities in the midwest and east, to guaranteed job offers on farms and in cities or to join family members or relatives already living out of the relocation camps. Some had joined the armed forces. Some 43,000 had resettled in nine states:

Illinois	15,000
Colorado	6,000
Utah	5,000
Ohio	3,900
Michigan	2,800
New York	2,500
New Jersey	2,200
Minnesota	1,700
Total	42,600

Generally, these Japanese Americans liked their new homes. They found job opportunities and acceptance that had been unknown in the Pacific coast states. Many had no desire to return; others would in time be drawn back because of business, property, family, old friends or even by the climate of the Pacific coast.

In contrast, the concerns of Japanese Americans concerning their welcome to the Pacific coast states soon proved to be well founded. While there was no mass uprising, the problems reported were enough to make many Japanese feel that there was no future on the Pacific coast for them. The Coast had always had anti-Asian feelings.

There were many instances of ill-will and prejudice - merchants who refused to sell their products to Japanese, fruit and vegetable dealers who refused to buy from Japanese farmers, city officials who found reasons for delaying or denying business licenses, attempted dynamiting of farm buildings and homes.

The story of Japanese Americans since their release from relocation camps during World War II was largely one of building up again everything they had lost. For the farmers, businessmen, flower growers and fishermen, it meant starting all over again with less money and less chance of a loan from the bank than at any other time past. For young adults, it meant finding suitable jobs among great competition from returning servicemen home from the wars. For the college students, it meant finding places in colleges that would accept them. The story of the Japanese Americans since the end of World War II has been the story of a people successfully putting their life together again.

My name is _____ Date _____

JAPANESE AMERICAN EXPERIENCE: WHAT LAWS HAVE BEEN PASSED SINCE 1945 DEALING WITH JAPANESE AMERICANS?

Thanks to the great contributions made by the Japanese Americans, the American people have become aware of the violation of civil rights of these citizens by their removal and internment in 1942. Congress passed a law, the Japanese American Evacuation Claims Act of July 2, 1948, which enabled them to file claims for payment of damage or loss of property due to the removal. Many families could not file any claims for they did not have records to show what they had been forced to leave behind when they left. Even those who managed to file claims were paid only ten cents (10¢) for every dollar lost. The Japanese Americans lost far more than the government repaid.

Among the more important laws was the passage of the McCarran-Walter Act of July 27, 1952. This law allowed people of Japanese background to become naturalized citizens for the first time since they came to the United States as immigrants. It also allowed Japanese immigration on a quota basis for the first time since 1924.

In 1950, during the height of the Communist spy problem in the United States, Congress passed Title II of the McCarran Act. This law provided for the construction and maintenance of five internment camps scattered in the United States (the most familiar name being Tule Lake, California) to intern any individual or group of individuals who might be suspected of being revolutionaries, saboteurs, troublemakers, etc. Japanese Americans, seeing the dangers of holding people simply on suspicion of being guilty, organized a committee of the Japanese American Citizens League to campaign against Title II in 1967. Enlisting much support and interest among congressmen and organizations in the country, Japanese Americans were able to have Title II of the McCarren Act repealed by Congress in 1971. Thus, the Japanese Americans, made one of their greatest contributions to honest and democratic government.

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(Student Study Sheet #2 - Lesson 18)

LESSON NINETEEN: CONTRIBUTIONS BY JAPANESE AMERICANS

RESOURCES

- Voices of Change, page 58
- Voices of the Californians, pages 163-211
- The Story of California, Chapter 31

TEACHING OBJECTIVES

To provide the students with factual and conceptual knowledge related to the idea that Japanese Americans have made significant contributions to the economic, political, social and cultural growth of the United States.

To develop positive feelings toward all people of varied racial background.

INTRODUCING THE LESSON

( ) Teacher tells newspaper, television, etc., accounts of Japanese Americans who are making or have made contributions in various fields in the United States.

( ) Teacher asks if any students have read or heard of any other Japanese Americans making contributions in various fields.

( ) Teacher/students find out more about other Japanese Americans not mentioned in discussion.

ACTIVITIES

( ) Reproduce Japanese Americans: A Biography for each student.

( ) Teacher/students: read and discuss biography

( ) Students categorize names of persons under various fields of achievement-politics, agriculture, science, law, etc.

GLOSSARY

GLOSSARY

immigrant - one who comes into a country of which he is not a native, for permanent residence.

emigrant - one who leaves a country for residence in another.

issei - a first generation Japanese to reside in the United States.

nisei - a second generation, American-born person of Japanese ancestry.

sansei - a third generation, American-born person of Japanese ancestry with one or both parents having been born and/or raised in the United States.

JAPANESE AMERICANS: A BIOGRAPHY

JAPANESE AMERICANS: A BIOGRAPHY

John F. Aiso	First mainland Nisei to be named to a judicial post. He was appointed to the Municipal Court in L.A. by Governor Earl Warren, on September 25, 1953. He served as commissioner in the Superior Court of California for a year previous to the appointment. After serving ten years. he was named a Justice in the California Court of Appeal in 1968.
Yuriko Amemiya	Formerly a dancer with Martha Graham, she has formed a modern dance group of her own. This group has gained success in New York and has recently toured United States performing in major cities.
Kusaburo George Baba	In fulfilling social need of Japanese farm laborers, Dr. Baba became a labor leader. A sugar beet and Farm Laborer's Union of Oxnard was formed in 1903. He was elected as their first president.
Frank Chuman	Has been recognized as a prominent Los Angeles attorney.
Jerry Enomoto	A penologist with California prison system.
Kenji Fujii	Elected president of the American Carnation Society. First Japanese to be named to that post in 72 years of the organizations' existence. Contributed greatly to the development of the flower industry in San Francisco area.
David H. Furukawa	Research engineer in the desalinization of brackish water for the U.S. Bureau of reclamation in Denver, and United Nations adviser on a demineralization project in Israel. Since receiving the award he moved to San Diego to become director of research and development for an international firm specializing in membrane filtration processes.
Yasuo Baron Goto	Vice-chancellor of the East-West Center at the University of Hawaii. In 1955 he was named director of the extension service of the University of Hawaii's College of Tropical Agriculture, and vice-chancellor in 1962. Through his work for the Agency of International Development as a member of the United States Commission on the South Pacific and of the Pacific Science Board of the National Academy of Science, Mr. Goto travels frequently deep into Southeast Asia and the Pacific Trust Territories. Through his practicing diplomacy, he is helping to bring together the peoples and cultures of East and West through Hawaii.

Motojiro Hattori	Had long operated a poultry farm and hatchery in Fresno. Became interested in the skill of chick sexing. Chick sexing is an industry where newborn chicks are separated into male and female soon after they are hatched to the benefit of poultry farmers who save on feed by keeping only hens for egg-laying purposes. Through Mr. Hattori's interest, demonstrations were held at the University of California, Petaluma and spread to other parts of the United States stimulating possibilities of trade.
Samuel Ichiye Hayakawa	A Canadian born semanticist, took the position of Acting President of San Francisco State College, when militants attempted to close it. A leading semanticist, and lecturer of psychology, sociology and language. Highly regarded as a jazz historian, Dr. S.I. Hayakawa is now president emeritus of San Francisco State University.
Seiji Horiguchi	Is the first Nisei to be elected to the State Legislature. In Colorado he ran for the 1962-1964 term as a Republican in a Democratic district and won. He established an excellent record but retired after the one term to go back to his business as an agricultural consultant.
Bill Hosokawa	Assistant managing editor of the Denver Post, former president of the American Association of Sunday and Feature Edition. As that newspaper's first foreign correspondent, he covered the Korean War. Well known author of Nisei-The Quiet Americans.
Hiro Imamura	Sansei (third-generation Japanese American)concert pianist. Graduated from Berkeley High school and University of California, Berkeley. She is studying and and concertizing in Europe.
George K. Inagaki	Was president of the Southern California Flower Market in 1952-56. Member of the Los Angeles Welfare Council, Southern California Japanese Children's Home, Adoption Bureau, business and community leader.
Daniel K. Inouye	Born in Hawaii, 1924. Enlisted in the Army, W.W. II, promoted to Captain in the famous 442nd Combat Team. Discharged because of the loss of his right arm in combat. He joined politics in hopes that he could help bring about changes for the Japanese-Americans. In 1954, he was elected to the Hawaiian House of Representatives; elected to the United States Congress in 1959; elected to the United States Senate in 1962.

JAPANESE AMERICANS: A BIOGRAPHY - continued

Harvey A. Itano	Harvey Itano, a graduate of the University of California, established the highest scholastic record at the University. Unable to attend his graduation exercise and to receive his degree in chemistry because he was detained in a concentration camp during World War II. Now of Bethesda, Maryland, he is a brilliant scientist. He has been presented with a special recognition award in this field.
Tomi Kanagawa	First Nisei singer to appear in leading role with Metropolitan Opera and widely recognized nationally and in Europe as a concert performer.
Henry Y. Kasai	Naturalized in 1952, in Salt Lake City. He is credited with persuading the Utah legislation to erase a number of racially discriminatory laws, notably the ban on miscegenation. He was awarded the Junior Chamber of Commerce Americanism Award, and other awards. The Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith cited him "for his dedication to translating democratic ideals into a way of life for all Americans."
Dr. Kazumi Kasuga	Deputy Chief of the Division of Indian Health in the U.S. Public Health Service, he is one of the nation's foremost specialist in tuberculosis control. He served in various health service agencies for Indians and Alaskans since 1946. He was awarded the "Public Health Services, Meritorious Service Medal."
Saburo Kido	Born in Hilo, Hawaii, October 8, 1902. Attended Mid-Pacific Institution and then to U.C. Berkeley. He finished his education at Hasting College of Law in San Francisco. In 1928, organized the "Japanese American Citizens League" in San Francisco. Took a strong stand on "non-violent" protests, but some of the people did not go along with him. Two attempts were made on his life, one almost successful. He moved to Salt Lake City, Utah, there he continued his fight for Japanese American rights. In 1946, Saburo Kido received the Selective Service Medal for Patriotic Services.
Dr. Chihiro Kikuchi	Mathematician, physicist, and atomic engineer, he is on the faculty of the University of Michigan at Ann Arbor. His research lead him to uncover a "synthetic pink ruby," which has helped current studies in space communication.
Dr. Samuel J. Kimura	Born in Berkeley, California. Professor of ophthalmology and of ambulatory and community medicine at the University of California, San Francisco.

Dr. Jin H. Kinoshita	An ophthalmologist who did research into the formation of "sugar" cataracts and the prevention and treatment of disease.
Tom Kitayama	Mayor of Union City, 1960, and owner with his brothers of the largest producer of carnations in the United States.
Keisaburo Koda	A prominent rice grower, he and Mr. K. Ikeda established the State Farming Company. Mr. Koda invented an incomparably efficient harvester and drier.
Ford Hiroshi Konno	Recognized as America's greatest swimmer of his day, he broke numerous records while swimming at Ohio State University, in National AAU and National Collegiate Athletic Association championships and won the 1,500 meter free-style in the Olympic Games in Helsinki.
Tommy Kono	Olympic gold medalist in the 1952 and 1956 Olympic Games, for weight lifting.
William Marumoto	Assistant to the Secretary in the Department of Health, Education and Welfare.
Mike Masaru Masaoka	Born October 15, 1915, Fresno, California. Helped his father sell fish and fruits in Utah. Mike helped support his family of eight after his father died in an auto accident. Worked for the J.A.C.L., was its national secretary at the outbreak of World War II. Wrote the Japanese American Creed. Soon after he was one of the first Japanese Americans to join the 442nd Regimental Combat Team. After the war he returned to his former position of national secretary of the J.A.C.L. and fought against anti-Japanese injustices.
Dr. Kenneth N. Matsumura	A graduate from Berkeley High School. Dr. Matsumura, a physician-scientist, developed the "world's first artificial liver." He began his work at the age of fifteen.
Rep. Spark M. Matsunaga	United States Congressman from Hawaii. Worked his way through college as a stevedore, warehouseman, bookkeeper, and sales clerk. Served with great distinction during World War II and twice wounded in battle. Received his law degree from Harvard Law School, 1951, and served in both municipal government at Honolulu and the national government in Washington, D.C. Elected to the United States House of Representatives, 1962.

JAPANESE AMERICANS: A BIOGRAPHY - continued

Norman Mineta	San Jose city councilman and vice-mayor of the Human Relations Committee. He was elected into office to fill a vacancy, then in the spring he ran for a full term and won. He is the first "non-Caucasian" to fill the seat in its 117 year old council. Elected mayor of San Jose, California in 1971. First Asian American to become mayor of a major city in the nation.
Patsy Takemoto Mink	The first woman of Asian descent to be elected into the U.S. House of Representatives and to be admitted to practice law in Hawaii.
Dr. Iwao Milton Moriyama	Chief of the Mortality Analysis Section of the National Office of Vital Statistics in Washington, D.C., consultant to the United Nations, United States delegate to conferences in Egypt, Japan, Rome, etc.
Jack Murata	An agricultural chemist with the Department of Interior. Cited for his research in geophysical and spectrographical analyses. Later, the director of an agricultural research project in Brazil, for the Brazilian government.
Yosuke Nakano	Architect, who helped develop a widely used method for pumping concrete into forms in the construction of large buildings. He was head of construction for Bell Telephone Company, Gulf and Sun Oil Company and the Presbyterian Hospital in Philadelphia. He died in Japan in 1961.
Frank Ogawa	Wholesale nurseryman. After five years on the Park Commission, he was named councilman for the city of Oakland. Now, vice-mayor of the city of Oakland.
Dr. Thomas T. Omori	A resident of Pasadena, he is considered one of the nation's top men in the field of lunar probes, rocket propulsion, nuclear energy and ballistic missles.
Harry Ayao Osaki	Silversmith from Pasadena, California, whose creations are on display in more than sixty museums. His work was chosen six times by the State Department for displaying in Europe.
James Shigeta	Singer, actor, television star, both in the United States and recently in Japan.
George Shima (Kinji Ushijima)	Came to the U.S. at about twenty. President of Japanese Association for ten years. His main fight was against the Alien Land Law. Had an American company back him with an experiment dealing with farming. After he tested to find out what would do best in the delta, (the area was

	full of health hazards) he found that potatoes would grow the best. For many years he had problems with prices and floods, etc. But with hope still in his heart he kept going. Soon afterwards his luck started to change. His earnings were about 8 million dollars. Throughout his lifetime he continued to improve his methods and invented new ones. On March 27, George Shima died in a Los Angeles hospital.
Tom Shimasaki	Credited for being the one person responsible for the high status and acceptance of Japanese Americans in Tulare County. He was given many honors and awards such as: Lindsay Community Citizen Award, president of the Lindsay Chamber of Commerce, etc.
Pat Suzuki	A musical comedy star in the Broadway production of "Flower Drum Song," night club and singing artist.
Paul Takagi	Professor of criminology, assistant dean of criminology at the University of California, Los Angeles and author of ethnic sociology books.
George Takei	Television and Movie star, active politically with Japanese American Citizens League in bettering media presentations of Asian Americans.
Stephen K. Tamura	County council for Orange County. On the legal staff of the Federal Security and Exchange Commission in Washington. Subsequently named to the California Superior Court seat.
David M. Tatsuno	On the National Board of the YMCA, Mr. Tatsuno is chairman of the Pacific Southwest Area Council encompassing five states. Named "Man of the Year" by the Optimists of San Jose.
Dr. Paul Terasaki	Professor of surgery in residence at the U.C.L.A. Played a key role in the heart transplant. Through his research he found a way of testing tissue for compatability and acceptance. One of the surgeons from Dr. Christian Barnard's team went to study Terasaki's methods before the first heart transplant was performed.
Yoshiko Uchida	A graduate cum laude from University of California and recipient of Master's in Education from Smith College, Mississippi. Uchida has turned to a writing career after doing some teaching. She has written some 20 books for school age children.

JAPANESE AMERICANS: A BIOGRAPHY - continued

Miyoshi Umeki	Born in Japan. First known as a popular Japanese singer. Played in the Broadway and screen version of "Flower Drum Song." Recently protrayed as Mrs. Livingston in the television series, "The Courtship of Eddie's Father."
Edison Uno	Administrator of the University of California, San Francisco Medical School. Part-time instructor at San Francisco State University. Has been active as a speaker, especially in education for Japanese-American rights.
Henry T. Ushijima	A Chicago movie producer, he is well known for his prize-winning documentary and educational films.
Dr. Newton (Uyesugi) Westley	Role in perfecting contact lenses. He was going blind from keratoconus, a condition where the cornea grows out like a cone. Regular glasses could not help his vision. He figured that if he wore contact lens with a little pressure it may help restore his vision and could be a cure for the keratoconus. Working with a partner they designed a new type of contact, not made of glass and not bulky. This new lens made of plastic stopped the deterioration of Westley's sight. With new techniques in manufacturing the lens are worn all over the world.
Minoru Yamasaki	Yamasaki combined his knowledge of the Japanese culture and art with that of the Western architecture. He designed many beautiful buildings such as Federal Science Pavilion at Seattle's Century 21 Exposition, the World Trade Center on Manhattan's Lower West Side. Has recently designed the 110 floor high twin towers of the New York's World Trade Center.
Thomas T. Yamauchi	A Viking program manager for the Boeing Company which is working together with General Electric and Hughes Aircraft on a project to land scientific payloads on Mars. He was chief of systems engineering and technology on the highly successful Lunar Orbitor program.

THE CHINESE AND JAPANESE IN AMERICA: A CHRONOLOGY

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217 B.C. — According to an ancient Chinese document, Hee Li landed in America this date and that regular trade existed between China and the native peoples of California. Another document found dated 100 years later tells of trade with natives in a land across the sea. The second document told of junks that visited America every few months. No reason was stated for the cessation of this trade. Hee Li died in 197 B.C.

458 — A passage in the History of the Liang Dynasty can be interpreted as recounting the visit of Hui-shen, a Buddist, to the West Coast of America. Descriptions of what he saw are too vague to be accepted as positive proof.

1565 — Manila-Acapulco (Mexico) trade route was established. Important in that it provided the vehicle for the introduction of the first Chinese to the New World (Mexico).

1600's — Settlement of Chinese in/about Acapulco as an incidental result of the Spanish-Manila-Acapulco trade route across the Pacific.

1635 June — Native barbers in Acapulco complained of the competition and monopoly of the barbering trade by Chinese . . . Chinese were subsequently expelled from the city.

1644 — The Manchus conquer China, overthrowing the Ming Dynasty. As a sign of allegiance to the Manchu government, all Chinese are required to wear their hair in a long braid, on penalty of death.

1784 — Just after the War of Independence, the first American ship, the "Empress of China" landed at Canton, China. Previously, the Portuguese had come in 1516, the Dutch in 1624, and the English in 1637.

1785 — Three Chinese seamen, A-shing, A-chun and Ac-cun, on the ship "Pallas," and 32 East Indian lascars were left stranded in Baltimore by their skipper, Captain John O'Donnell. Not known whether or not they were ever able to return to their ancestral land.

1788 — Captain John Meares, skipper of the ships Felice and Iphigonia, returned from China with 120 Chinese carpenters, coopers, armorers and other skilled workmen, to set up a trading post at Nootka Sound, Canada. On a second trip back in 1789, he brought 29 more Chinese workers. He promised to bring them wives, deserted them, and all of the Chinese were eventually wiped out by hostile natives.

1796 April — Andreas Everardus Van Braam Houckgeest, a Dutchman retired from the Dutch East India Company, brought five Chinese servants and settled near Philadelphia in an old estate, which he renamed "China's Retreat." Gave the first exhibition of Chinese art; authored the first book on China published in the United States.

1815 — The first record of a Chinese in California was Ah Nam (from Chinsan, Canton Province), a cook for Governor De Sola; baptized as a Christian, October 27, 1815.

1818 — Five Chinese, named Wong Arce, Ah Lan, Ah Lum, Chop Ah See and Lieaou Ah See, attended the Foreign Mission School at Cornwall, Connecticut.

1820 — Beginning of official record-keeping of immigrants to the United States. For almost three decades, up to 1849, the records show a total of 43 Chinese immigrants. This does not include the West Coast of the United States as it was not part of the United States at that time.

1839 — The Opium War between China and the Western Powers begins. It ended with China's humiliating defeat in 1840.

1842 — Treaty of Nanking was signed and it ended China's closed door policy. Five ports were opened for trading; Hong Kong was ceded to Britain; the Western Powers received legal jurisdiction over their own nationals in China.

1844 — Cushing Treaty between China and the United States inaugurated formal political relations and contained the "most favored nation" clause, granting the United States the same rights that the British had secured from the Treaty of Nanking, and more, Americans were removed from Chinese jurisdiction, secured land set aside for their own purposes, taxes on trade goods could not be more than 5%, etc. These terms, however, were not reciprocated for the Chinese in America.

1846-1850 — China experienced a series of natural catastrophes and civil uprisings the likes of which had never been seen in China before. A series of floods and droughts occurred throughout China; there was a "population explosion" and the cities rapidly became overcrowded; corruption; injustice and mismanagement of government affairs were common; great famines swept the land; banditry and outlawry increased; and many peasant uprisings and rebellion took place.

1848 — Editor of the San Francisco Star mentioned the presence of two or three "Celestials" (Chinese) in San Francisco.

1848 Jan. * — Discovery of gold at Coloma! Up to this time, it was a crime punishable by beheading for a subject of a Chinese emperor to emigrate from his homeland. This imperial decree was relaxed by a United States treaty permitting Chinese residents in the United States, signed 1844, and the fact that California gold would enrich China.

1849 — "Push" conditions in China (floods, droughts, overcrowding, civil uprisings, peasant rebellion, etc.) and the "pull" of gold in California attracts heavy migration to the West.

1849 — There were 54 Chinese in San Francisco. By January 1850, increased to 787 men and two women.

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1850 * San Francisco Mayor Geary invites the Chinese to participate in a memorial funeral procession for the late President Zachary Taylor.

* First anti-Chinese riot at China Camp in Tuolomne County.

First Chinese laundry established in San Francisco.

1851 First recorded Chinese New Year's celebration in America.

Famine in China increased immigration to California, bringing 4,000 Chinese by 1851.

1852 By 1852, there were 20,025 Chinese immigrants, most of all in California. From 1852 to 1876 it increased to 214,126.

Two San Francisco Chinese merchants, serving the needs of people on their way to the gold fields and return, wrote a letter to the Governor of California that they were grossing $10,000 a day in business.

Discovery of gold on the Rogue River brought the Chinese to Oregon.

October 18. First Chinese opera performed in San Francisco.

December 23. The first Chinese theater was established. The building was brought from China and erected in San Francisco. The first example of prefabricated construction, pioneered by the Chinese.

Tai Ping Rebellion threatens Manchu Dynasty rule in China. United States sends General Frederick Townsend Ward; the British dispatch General Charles "Chinese" Gordon to command troops in assisting the Manchu Dynasty to crush Hung Hsu-ch'uan, leader of the rebel movement.

* Governor John McDougal recommended a system of land grants to induce further immigration and settlement by the Chinese, whom he praised as "one of the most worthy of our newly adopted citizens."

* Know-Nothing Party began using Chinese as political scapegoats.

* Senator George B. Tingley introduced the "Coolie Bill" authorizing the state of California to contract and supervise Chinese labor on a ten year basis to fill the gap in the labor market for workers.

First granite building, the Parrott Building, at California and Montgomery Streets, erected by Chinese stone masons and laborers, under contract.

* Columbia (California) resolution expelled Chinese from the gold mines in the area.

1853 Nov. First Chinese Presbyterian Church building constructed.

President Millard Fillmore sent Commodore Matthew Perry to Japan, ending 200 years of national isolation from the Western World.

1854 First Chinese newspaper in the United States, "Gum Sahn See Boh," Gold Hill News, published in San Francisco.

Chinese engaged in salmon fishery at Monterey; established fishing village at Rincon Point, San Francisco.

July. Fight between Sze Yup clan and Heungshan clan in Weaverville, California, left 10 Chinese dead.

* State statute passed in 1850, prohibiting testimony of blacks and Indians in court cases where whites were concerned, was interpreted as applying to Chinese also, i.e., Chinese were considered to be Indians.

1855 * Yung Wing received B.A. degree from Yale University, becoming the first Chinese college graduate and later, founder of Chinese student movement in the United States.

* Head Tax levied - $50 per Chinese imported into U.S. on ships.

1856 Chinese gathered abalone for food and exported abalone shells from San Francisco. Reported business of at least $36,000 in shells.

Punti-Hakka erupts in southeast China.

1858 First California railroad, California Central, employed Chinese as railroad workers. First recorded account of Chinese railroad workers in the United States.

10,000 Chinese moved out of California with the discovery of gold in Canada, specifically in British Columbia, Fraser River Strike.

* Attempts by white gold miners to expel Chinese miners from the gold fields, and Chinese were routed out of Vallecito, Douglas Flat, Sacramento Bar, Coyote Flat, Sand Flat, Rock Creek, Spring Creek and Buckeye. Chinese accounted for 25% of California miners.

Gold, silver and copper mining in the Rocky Mountain area attracted some Chinese.

* Exclusion Law prohibited Chinese or "Mongolians" to enter state except when driven ashore by stress of weather or unavoidable accident. Penalty of fine of $500-$600 or imprisonment from 6-12 months, or both. Later ruled unconstitutional.

1859 * San Francisco expels its Chinese children from the public schools. San Francisco Superintendent of Schools, Mr. Moulder, called for the expulsion of Africans, Diggers (Indians) and Mongolians (Chinese) from the public schools. Superintendent threatened to withhold from the school district all shares of the state school fund if action was not carried out. Segregated schools established.

* Segar (cigar) Makers' Association passed a resolution in opposition to the hiring of Chinese. By 1866, San Francisco had become the center of the cigar industry in California. Half of San Francisco's cigar factories were Chinese owned, although they used Spanish names because of anti-Chinese sentiments. By the mid-1800's, the Segar Makers' Union, aided by the Chinese Exclusion Acts and the prevailing anti-Chinese mood, finally succeeded in eliminating the Chinese from the cigar-making industry. It was during this period that the white union cigar lable appeared in order to more easily identify brands made by white men.

1860 * Chinese laborers used in Sonoma and Napa Counties in the wine industry.

* Chinese declared ineligible for naturalization.

* Tax of $4.00 per month was enacted on all Chinese engaged in fishing, to be enforced by seizure of fishing boat or other property. Revenue from this source was so disappointing that the act was repealed in 1864.

Chinese migrated to northern Idaho following the discovery of gold at Orofino.

* The Chinese Consolidated Benevolent Association, better known popularly as the "Chinese Six Companies," was formed in San Francisco.

1860's to 1880's * With the decline in gold mining activity in the Sierra Nevada foothills, Chinese miners moved into agriculture, land reclamation, fishing, manufacturing and service industries. Success in any of these fields was followed by anti-Chinese violence and restrictive legislation.

1862 * "Police Tax" law was passed whereby all "Mongolians" 18 years or over, unless they had paid a Miners' Tax, or were working in the production of sugar, rice, coffee or tea, had to pay a monthly tax of $2.50. Later ruled unconstitutional.

U.S. Congress passed a law forbidding American vessels from carrying coolie labor. Although this law had its exclusion aspects, it was aimed mainly at stopping the Chinese contract labor practice, which was essentially a form of slave trade with accompanying excess and brutal treatment of the Chinese.

1863 Jan. 8 The transcontinental railroad was begun from Sacramento.

1864 * It was made a crime for Chinese to fish in inland California.

1865 Spring Fifty Chinese railroad workers hired on an experimental basis. They proved so adept that by fall of 1865, J.H. Strobridge, the Irish railroad superintendent began hiring them in earnest. Six thousand Chinese were utilized as the main labor force for the Central Pacific (western section of the transcontinental railroad).

1866 Anson Burlingame, United States Diplomat, becomes trusted advisor to the Chinese government and represents China as the Chinese envoy to the United States and principal European nations.

1867 June Some 2,000 Chinese railroad workers engaged in tunnel work in the high Sierras went on strike, which subsequently collapsed for the lack of support from other workers.

Emperor Meiji ascends the imperial throne and begins his reign - unified the country, encouraged the great industrial revolution in Japan, and ruled until 1912.

1868 * Burlingame Treaty removed official Chinese restrictions on persons who wanted to go to the United States, recognizing "the inherent and inalienable right of man to change his home and allegiance..." but it did not have the effect of conferring American citizenship.

First "contracted" Japanese immigrants were brought to Hawaiian sugar plantations for three years at $4 per month wages.

1869 May 10 Transcontinental railroad was joined as one line at Promontory Point, Utah. Immediate effect was that it left thousands of Chinese laborers without jobs, most of whom migrated back to the West Coast.

First permanent Japanese settlement in America, Gold Hill near Coloma, California - 20-30 Japanese brought over by Dutch trader Edward Schnell. Popularly known today as the "Wakamatsu Colony."

1870 Peak of Chinese mining activity.

* "Good Character" law. A penalty of no less than $1,000 would be levied on any person bringing an Asian into the state without first presenting evidence of his good character. Declared unconstitutional in 1876.

* "Pole Act" ordinance prohibited persons from walking on the sidewalk while using poles to carry goods from their shoulders. Pole ordinance of the city of San Francisco was upheld by the State Supreme Court.

1870 * "Cubic Air Ordinance" - San Francisco passed an ordinance forbidding any person to hire or let sleeping rooms with less than 500 cubic feet of air space per person. Because of the crowded living conditions in the Chinatown ghetto, this was an impossible law for the Chinese to obey. Arrested en masse, the Chinese were advised by their lawyer, the great Benjamin J. Brooks, not to post bond, thus resulting in the first "jail sit-in." Brooks then turned around and filed suit against the city of San Francisco for violating their own ordinance with overcrowded jails. Ordinance ruled void by the County Court of San Francisco, September 1873.

* Pressure by Italian, Greek and Dalmatian fishermen resulted in a law passed to regulate the size of the mesh in shrimp and drag nets of the Chinese fishermen.

* Anti-Chinese Convention of State of California, in San Francisco.

105,465 Chinese in the United States.

1871 * Anti-Chinese agitation and riots in all parts of California in the decade of the 1870's spurred greater migration to the eastern United States in an effort to seek a friendlier climate. This movement continued through the next few decades, and sizeable Chinese towns were built up in cities such as Chicago and New York.

* Policeman's death in Los Angeles Tong War resulted in a white mob massacre of 22 Chinese, including women and children.

1872 Chinese employed as field and factory workers in California's first sugar beet plant at Alvarado. Chinese were almost exclusively employed in the beet fields until 1891.

* State Statute of 1854 (prohibition of court testimony of Chinese) repealed.

First Japanese ambassadors arrived in San Francisco.

1873 * "Queue" Ordinance. The San Francisco Board of Supervisors passed the Queue Ordinance which meant that every Chinese prisoner in jail would have his hair cut or clipped to a uniform length of an inch from the scalp. This had the traumatic effect of taking away the "badge of citizenship" to the Chinese government, thus leaving the Chinese man without a country.

* "Laundry" Ordinance. The San Francisco Board of Supervisors also passed the Laundry Ordinance which stipulated that those laundries employing one vehicle drawn by a horse would pay a license fee of $1.00 per quarter; those who employed two horse-drawn vehicles would need to pay $4.00 per quarter; more than two horse-drawn delivery vehicles would pay $15.00 per quarter; and those laundries which used no horse-drawn vehicles would pay the same $15.00 per quarter. Needless to say, the Chinese did not employ horse-drawn vehicles...they delivered their laundry in baskets suspended on poles! Delcared void by the District Court, 1876.

1874 Chinese extensively employed in construction of miles of levees and reclamation projects in Sacramento River Delta.

Chinese government began sending scores of students to United States schools.

1875 San Francisco Chinatown population - 47,000 people.

Bing cherries named after Chinese foreman who cultivated them at the Seth Lowelling Farms, Oregon.

* Bank of California went broke. Indicative of the economic decline of the West Coast...for which the Chinese were blamed. Chinese laborers became scapegoats for the Panic of 1876.

1877 * Joint special committee of the U.S. Congress met in San Francisco to investigate the Chinese problem. Document, consisting of over 12,000 pages, tended to favor the Chinese, but committee recommended that treaty be modified to apply only to commerce, and that separate legislation be enacted to prevent immigration. Subsequently, in 1879, the "Fifteen Passenger" Bill resulted in Congress.

* Six thousand discontented white laborers flocked into San Francisco in reaction to railroad strikes and riots in the East, demanding that something be done with the Chinese. This led to an anti-Chinese march upon Chinatown whereupon 25 Chinese laundries were destroyed and several buildings set afire.

* Committee of Safety formed in San Francisco to quell anti-Chinese and other disorders. Committee was backed by $100,000 and 1,000 armed men.

* California Workingmen's Party organized under Dennis Kearney, a rabid racist.

1878 * Ch'Fa Lan-Pin appointed Minister to the United States to protect Chinese laborers and students.

* Ah Yup denied naturalization by San Francisco Circuit Court. Established precedent in denying legal citizenship status to Chinese. Naturalization laws, up to that time, did not expressly deny this right to Chinese.

1879 * "Fifteen Passenger" Bill passed by U.S. Congress. Limited Chinese immigrants to 15 per sailing vessel or ship. President Hayes refused to sign bill as it violated the Burlingame Treaty and the U.S. Constitution.

* Second California Constitution adopted anti-Chinese article which prohibited employment of Chinese by any corporation or state, county and municipal governments, except as a member of a chain-gang. Also allowed any city to expel its entire Chinese community on two days notice - the city of Oakland being one of many cities to enforce this law. Declared unconstitutional in 1880, when large mining corporations in

California found it impossible to continue mining operations without its Chinese mining force.

1880 * "Anti-Ironing" law. A crime in the city of San Francisco to iron clothes between the hours of 10:00 p.m. and 6:00 a.m.

There are 75,000 Chinese in California.

Burlingame Treaty amended. United States had the power to regulate, limit or suspend, but not abolish the immigration or residence of Chinese to and in America.

* California State Legislature passed a law requiring Chinese fishermen to take out a fishing license at $2.50 per month.

1881 Chinese government recalls Chinese students in the United States.

1882 * First Chinese Exclusion Act passed, suspended the immigration of Chinese laborers, skilled and unskilled, for a period of 10 years. However, teachers, students, merchants and travelers were exempted from the suspension. Naturalization of Chinese in the United States was prohibited. The act stated specifically: "That hereafter no State court or court of the United States shall admit Chinese to citizenship." It was not until December 1943 that President Franklin D. Roosevelt repealed the Chinese Exclusion Act, thereby permitting immigration of Chinese to the United States.

1883 Forty-four Japanese jumped American whaling ships in San Francisco because of intolerable conditions aboard ship.

1885 * Rock Springs Massacre: 28 Chinese slain by white mob in Rock Springs, Wyoming, with reported $150,000 property damage incurred by Chinese.

Japanese government passes a law allowing Japanese nationals to emigrate.

1886 Martial Law invoked during anti-Chinese riots in Seattle, Washington.

* Yick Wo vs. Hopkins. Issue: "Only buildings of brick or stone might be used for laundries." Courts ruled this civic law unconstitutional.

1888 Sept. * Nearly 6½ years after the passage of the Chinese Exclusion Act, a law was enacted whereby a Chinese laborer would not be permitted to re-enter the United States unless he had a lawful wife, child, parents in the country, or property therein value of $1,000 or more.

* October 1. Scott Act passed forbidding the re-entry of Chinese laborers who had departed from the States. At the time of its effective date, there were over 20,000 Chinese who had temporarily

left the United States with U.S. government certificates permitting them to return. Six hundred Chinese were already aboard ship on their return passage to the U.S.A., they were all refused readmission.

Group of Japanese were "welcomed" by farm growers in the Vacaville area since they came to replace Chinese farm workers.

1890 — There are 107,488 Chinese in the United States.

1892 May 5.* — Geary Act extends the first Chinese Exclusion Act for another 10 years. Additional imposed restrictions required registration and the issuance of certificates of residence to Chinese who could establish legality for their presence in the U.S. Chinese found without certificates would be deported to China as "undesirable aliens" whose presence in the United States was "inconsistent with the public welfare."

* Chinese junks used in abalone fishing were declared "alien vessels" because of their Chinese ownership. After the passage of the Chinese Exclusion Act of 1892, Chinese fishermen found that they were forbidden to own junks operating in "foreign waters" (San Francisco Bay).

Japanese went to work as fishermen in Monterey Bay. Cuttlefish was their main catch.

Vacaville - Chinese and Japanese cherry pickers attacked and beaten by unemployed white laborers.

1893 * Anti-Chinese riots in Fresno, Napa, Redlands, Tulare, Visalia, Ukiah and Vacaville.

1896 — Japanese government passes laws regulating Japanese emigrants: (a) must have funds for journey (b) must have guarantee of overseas employment (c) must be of sound mind and body.

Two hundred Japanese railroad workers in Nampa, Idaho went on strike. Result was that they received a raise - $1.10 for working a 10 hour day.

1898 July * U.S. government prohibited further immigration of Chinese into Hawaii. Chinese Exclusion Act applied to Islands.

Rainier, Oregon - Japanese railroad workers' camp raided by a gang of unemployed whites. Threats of "get out of town or be shot." Company officials intervened; Japanese returned to camp.

Eight Japanese sailors were among the crew members aboard the battleship Maine that went down in Havana Harbor.

1900 — Forty-five thousand Chinese in California.

* April 30. Chinese in Hawaii were also required to register and obtain certificates of residence. (See Geary Act of 1892.)

Boxer Rebellion in China.

Between 1890 and 1900, 22,000 Japanese came to the United States. "Wrong country...wrong state...wrong time." (Harry Kitano)

Gallup, New Mexico. Hundreds of Japanese worked coal mines in the area. In subsequent years, more than 30 Japanese died from mine accidents and the miners' disease, silicosis.

1900 to 1907 — Approximately 57,000 Japanese left Hawaiian sugar plantations, where pay was 69¢ - 75¢ per day, for mainland mines and railroad work where wages were from $1.00 - $1.35 per day.

1901 — * Law passed in California State Legislature forbidding the taking of abalones measuring less than 15" around the outer edge of its shell. Subsequent legislation was even more restrictive; finally, forced the Chinese abalone fishermen out of the industry.

* State legislation was enacted making May, June, July and August of each year a closed season for harvesting Bay shrimps. Expressed goal of this legislation was to force Chinese shrimp fishermen to give up the industry and seek other employment, as was available, so that when the shrimp season reopened, there would be difficulty in regaining their former trade.

Japanese workers begin replacing Chinese in Oregon and Washington sawmills.

1903 — Japanese contractors begin forming "labor unions" and instances of Japanese workers being sent out to "scab" on striking companies are recorded.

1904 — Samuel Gompers, President of the A.F.L., legislated a union resolution against Japanese on the grounds that the "Japanese were as difficult to assimilate into the American culture as the Chinese."

1905 — * California State Legislature passed bill prohibiting the exportation of dried shrimps.

San Francisco Chronicle carried its first anti-Japanese editorial: February 23. "The Menace to the Country from Japanese Immigration."

1906 — San Francisco. Mayor Eugene Schmitz ordered school segregation of all Asian students in the San Francisco school system. Japanese government immediately lodged a strongly-worded official letter of complaint to President Theodore Roosevelt.

1908 — President Roosevelt negotiated his famed "Gentlemen's Agreement": (a) Japanese would no longer be able to emigrate to the United States, (b) Mayor Schmitz would rescind his school segregation order, (c) United States promised not to allow any more discriminatory laws to be passed detrimental to the best interests of Japanese in America.

Colorado. Japanese were employed in the construction of the Boulder Creek Reservoir, at which several Japanese were killed in work accidents.

Trade unions in Denver formed the Korean and Japanese Exclusion League.

1910 A trend of Japanese to independent business enterprises as opposed to contractual labor, but still dependent upon the ethnic community and serving their needs for services and supplies.

1912 Manchu Dynasty deposed in China; Chinese Republic established.

1913 Alien Land Law, the Webb-Heney Act: Barred aliens ineligible for citizenship, from owning land, but not from leasing land.

1914 Ludlow, Colorado. Organized miners raided scab camp and set fire to it. Several Japanese used as scab workers perished in the fire.

1915 * Chinese American Citizens Alliance founded to protect civil rights of Chinese Americans.

1917 Toyohiko Kagawa, later to become world famous as a Christian crusader, organized several hundred Japanese sugar beet workers in Ogden, Utah, into a Sharecroppers Union, and led a successful strike.

1920 61,639 Chinese in United States.

Cheyenne, Wyoming. Japanese railroad round-house machinests having been refused membership in the local union, did not join strike but worked as scabs.

Oahu, Hawaii. Six thousand Japanese and 2,700 Filipino sugar planation workers went on strike for better wages. Strike was broken after 6 months.

1868 to 1920 Seventy two thousand Hawaiian Japanese participated in 62 strikes and work stoppages on sugar planations. In that same period, some 600 Japanese were arrested on various charges.

1921 * Legislation passed prescribing that an alien-born woman marrying a U.S. citizen could no longer automatically assume his citizenship. Because of the disparity in sex ratio of the Chinese population in the United States, Chinese men had to go back to China to find marriage partners. Legislation, in fact, kept families separated if one chose to return to the U.S.A.

* American Feminist Movement supported legislation which stated that any American born woman marrying a man ineligible for American citizenship would, in turn, lose her American citizenship. Intentionally or unintentionally, the legislation resulted in great anguish and frustration on the part of American born Chinese women who lost their American citizenship through marriage with no recourse to naturalization privileges.

1922 White maintenance crews of the Northern Pacific Railroad Company went on strike in Auburn, Washington. Japanese took strikers jobs, resulting in many mysterious fires in Japanese stores in the area.

1924 * Immigration Act excludes Asian immigrants from quota system, in violation of Gentlemen's Agreement. Although aimed at the Japanese immigrants, it also worked an even greater hardship on the Chinese:

1. It changed the definition of student status to mean "one aspiring to a Master's Degree rather than one entering at an ungraded level."
2. Closed off entry into United States of ten classes of Chinese.
3. It tightened the regulation prohibiting Chinese wives from entering the U.S.A., but permitted entry to children of American born Chinese; had the effect of families separated for many years.

Immigration Quota Act: (a) established a quota system for various nations, (b) but not for nations "ineligible for citizenship" (meaning Chinese and Japanese), (c) discriminatory and in violation of the Gentlemen's Agreement, (d) Japanese government took it as a grave insult.

1925 Toledo, Oregon. White mob kidnapped 27 Japanese and 4 Filipinos, employees of the Pacific Spruce Lumber Company, and put them on a train out of town.

1927 Stanford University professor surveyed files in California newspapers and discovered (a) Japanese rated 20,453" of newspaper space in one week's time, (b) feeling imparted was one of the irritations towards the Japanese, verging on open hostility, (c) "yellow peril" epithet coined in newspapers.

1929 Stock Market crash leads to Great Depression and period of social unrest. Prejudice and discrimination towards all minority groups by white majority society.

1930 74,954 Chinese in the United States.

Seattle. First convention of the J.A.C.L., Japanese American Citizens League.

Depression years. Unemployed, out-of-work laborers hold marches throughout the United States. Arrests made, including several Japanese in Los Angeles.

1931 Los Angeles. Karl Hama (Yoneda) jailed for 90 days on "disturbing the peace" charge during a march.

1932 * Cable Act allowed women denied of their citizenship to regain it through naturalization procedures.

1934 San Francisco. Shipowners attempted to recruit Japanese as scabs during the bloody waterfront strike on the Pacific Coast. Plot exposed when many leaflets were issued explaining in both Japanese and English what it meant to be a "scab."

1935 — The Chinese Digest (first periodical published by an all Chinese staff) founded.

San Francisco. Alaska Cannery Workers Union, Local 20195, A.F.L. formed. One of the organizers was Karl Hama (Yoneda). At its peak, the Local had 2,000 members, including some 100 Japanese. Meetings were conducted in English, Spanish, Italian, Filipino, Chinese and Japanese.

1936 — A.F.L. union led 5,000 Filipino farm workers in a strike in the Salinas area. Fifteen Nisei growers were among those deputized to help break the strike.

1937 — * Japan bombs U.S. gunboat Panay on the Yangtze River in China. Beginning of Japanese militarism in China and intensification of Chinese-Japanese ill will in the United States.

Seattle. C.I.O. Farm and Cannery Workers Union established, headed by Japanese Nisei.

Los Angeles. Produce Market Employees Local 20284, A.F.L., formed with 300 Japanese members.

1938 — C.I.O. cannery unions established in Monterey, San Pedro, San Diego and other cities. Unions had more than 1,000 Japanese women members.

Many Nisei assisted in the boycott of shipping scrap iron to Japan and participated in "Don't Buy Japanese Goods" campaigns in protest against rising Japanese militarism and its attack on China.

1940 — 77,504 Chinese in the United States.

* Nationality Act allows Chinese to become U.S. citizens by naturalization.

Washington, Oregon and California. Japanese owned 1,575 farms, totaling 71,000 acres, or 2/10 of the farmlands. In California, Japanese Issei and Nisei farmers accounted for: (a) 95% of the celery crops, (b) 95% of the snap beans, (c) 67% of the fresh tomatoes, (d) 44% of the onion crop.

1941 — Pearl Harbor, Hawaii. December 7: Japanese planes attack this naval base of the American Pacific Fleet.

December 8. U.S. Congress declared war on Japan. Germany and Italy, in accordance with the Tri-Partite Pact with Japan, declared war on the United States.

December 10. U.S. Attorney General Francis Biddle assured persons of Japanese ancestry in the United States, aliens and citizens alike, that they would be treated fairly and without discrimination.

1942

January 19. U.S. Attorney General Biddle issued first of a series of orders establishing limited strategic areas along the Pacific Coast and requiring the removal of all enemy aliens from those areas (Japanese, Italian, Germans).

February 10. Navy Department requested removal of all Japanese aliens from Bainbridge Island, Washington.

February 13. West Coast Congressional Delegation sent a letter to President Franklin Roosevelt recommending the "immediate removal of all persons of Japanese lineage...aliens and citizens alike" from the "entire strategic area" of California, Oregon and Washington.

February 14. Lieutenant General John L. Dewitt, Commanding General of the Western Defense Command, sent a memorandum to Secretary of War, Henry L. Stimson, recommending the evacuation of all Japanese from the West Coast.

February 19. President Roosevelt signed Executive Order 9066 authorizing the Secretary of War, or any military command designated by the Secretary, to establish "military areas" and exclude therefrom any or all persons of Japanese ancestry.

February 20. Secretary Stimson wrote to General Dewitt designating him as military commander empowered to carry out an evacuation within his command, under the terms of Executive Order 9066.

February 21 to March 12. Tolan Congressional Committee on National Defense Migration conducted public hearings on possible evacuation of Japanese and Japanese Americans in San Francisco, Portland and Seattle.

March 2. General Dewitt issued Public Proclamation No. 1: (a) the western half of Washington, Oregon and California and the southern third of Arizona designated as a military area, (b) announced that eventually all Japanese and Japanese Americans would be removed therefrom, (c) urged all persons of Japanese ancestry to voluntarily leave Military Area No. 1 for other parts of the United States.

March 8-10. National J.A.C.L. met in emergency session in San Francisco: (a) agreed to cooperate in the event of an evacuation as a patriotic gesture, (b) protested its necessity and the legality of such an action.

March 11. General Dewitt established the Wartime Civil Control Administration (W.C.C.A.) and appointed Colonel Karl R. Bendetsen as Director to carry out the evacuation program.

March 18. President Roosevelt signed Executive Order No. 9102: (a) created the War Relocation Authority (W.R.A.), a civilian agency, to assist persons evacuated by the Army, (b) named Dr. Milton S. Eisenhower as its director.

1942

March 21. President Roosevelt signed Public Law 503 (77th Congress) making it a Federal offense to violate any order issued by a designated military commander under Executive Order 9066. General Dewitt subsequently issued curfew and travel restrictions for all enemy aliens and Japanese Americans.

March 23. General Dewitt issued Civilian Exclusion Order No. 1: (a) evacuation of all persons of Japanese ancestry from Bainbridge Island, Puget Sound in Washington, (b) their detention at the Puyallup Assembly Center near Seattle by March 30.

March 27. General Dewitt issued Proclamation No. 4 (effective March 29) forbidding further voluntary movement of Japanese and Japanese Americans and "freezing" them to their homes as of that date.

May 8. First contingent of Japanese evacuees arrived at Colorado River (Poston) Relocation Center near Parker, Arizona.

May 27. First contingent of Japanese evacuees arrived at Tule Lake Relocation Center in Northern California.

June 1. Manzanar Reception Center was transferred from W.C.C.A. control to W.R.A. control and renamed Manzanar War Relocation Center.

June 2. General Dewitt issued Public Proclamation No. 6: (a) forbidding further voluntary movement from the eastern half of Military Area No. 2 of California, (b) announced that all such people would be removed from this area directly to W.R.A. centers.

July 20. Nisei permitted to leave W.R.A. centers for the first time for private employment in the mid-west.

August 7. First phase of removal completed. There were 110,000 persons of Japanese ancestry forcibly removed from their homes in Military Area No. 1.

August 10. First contingent of Japanese arrived from Puyallup Assembly Center to Minidoka W.R.A. Center.

August 12. First contingent of Japanese (from Pomona Assembly Center) arrived at Heart Mountain W.R.A. Center near Cody, Wyoming.

August 27. First contingent of evacuees (from Tanforan Assembly Center) arrived at Topaz W.R.A. Center near Delta, Utah.

September 18. First contingent of Japanese (from Stockton Assembly Center) arrived at Rowher W.R.A. Center near McGehee, Arkansas.

October 6. First group of Japanese (from Fresno Assembly Center) arrived at Jerome W.R.A. Center near Dermott, Arkansas.

November 3. Transfer of all Japanese and Japanese Americans from all Assembly Centers to permanent W.R.A. centers was completed with the arrival of final contingent to Jerome W.R.A. center.

1943 * Chinese Exclusion Act repealed (1882): Chinese immigrants may enter U.S.A. under quota system and are eligible for naturalization.

January 28. Secretary of War Stimson announced plans for the formation of a combat team to be composed of volunteer Nisei from the relocation centers, "the free zone" and Hawaii. Later designated as the 442nd Regimental Combat Team, seeing action in Italy and France.

May 17. U.S. Supreme Court unanimously upheld rights of American born Nisei to American citizenship in suit brought by the Native Sons of the Golden West. (John T. Reagan vs. Cameron King.)

June 21. U.S. Supreme Court unanimously upheld the constitutionality of the travel (Gordon K. Hirabayashi vs. U.S.A.) and curfew (Minoru Yasui vs. U.S.A.) restrictions imposed by General Dewitt prior to the issuance of the evacuation orders. Court cited the restrictions as a valid exercise of the war powers.

1944 February 8. Annual quota of 105 was established for persons of Chinese ancestry.

January 20. Selective Service System was reopened to eligible Nisei on the same basis as for other Americans.

February 16. President Roosevelt signed Executive Order No. 9423, transferring the W.R.A. to the Department of the Interior. Previously, the W.R.A. was an independent agency.

June 30. Jerome W.R.A. Center, last of the camps to be opened, was the first to be closed and its 5,000 remaining internees were transferred to other centers.

President Roosevelt signed Public Law 45 (78th Congress) permitting American born Japanese to renounce their citizenship under procedures approved by the Attorney General.

December 17. War Department announced revocation (effective January 2, 1945) of the West Coast mass exclusion orders which had been in effect since the Spring of 1942.

December 18. U.S. Supreme Court ruled 6-3, with Justices Roberts, Murphy and Jackson dissenting, that the mass removal and internment of Japanese was constitutional as a valid exercise of the war powers of Congress. (Fred Toyosaburo Korematsu vs. U.S.A.)

December 18. The same day, in a unanimous opinion, the same Supreme Court held (in the case of Ex Parte Mitsuye Endo) that it was unconstitutional to detain a loyal American citizen in a W.R.A. camp.

1945 December 28. First War Bride Act.

May 14. Secretary of the Interior Harold L. Ickes publicly denounced incidents of West Coast terrorism and violence against returning Japanese and Japanese American internees.

August 15. Japan surrenders unconditionally to the Allied Powers.

September 4. Western Defense Command issued Public Proclamation No. 24 revoking all individual exclusion orders and all further military restrictions against persons of Japanese ancestry.

1946 * Laws enacted to liberalize Chinese and Filipino immigration.

March 20. Tule Lake Segregation Center, the last of the W.R.A. camps to remain in operation, was oficially closed.

June 30. W.R.A. program officially terminated.

1947 * July 22. Second War Bride Act removed the restrictions of the First War Bride Act by emphasizing the concept of family unity. Approximately 6,000 Chinese women entered the U.S.A., married to American citizens.

1948 * California Supreme Court ruled state statutes banning racial intermarriage unconstitutional.

1949 * 3,016 Nationalist Chinese students enrolled in U.S. educational institutions.

1950 Passage of the 1950 McCarran Act. Sub-Title II of this act provided for establishment of detention camps for probable acts of sabotage or insurrection by any person or persons.

1952 Partial compensation for economic losses incurred because of the removal and internment of Japanese instituted by the U.S. government.

Passage of the McCarran-Walter Act of 1952: (a) allowed Japanese to become naturalized U.S. citizens, (b) put Japanese immigration on a quota basis (first time since 1924).

1955 James Wong Howe receives Academy of Motion Picture Arts and Sciences "Oscar" for photography of the picture "Rose Tattoo."

1957 C.Y. Lee writes Flower Drum Song (later made into Broadway musical and movie).

1958 * Amendments to the Immigration Act of 1924, permitting admission of alien born Chinese wives and/or their unmarried children under 21 years of age as non-quota immigrants. Removal of racial restrictions embodied in Brides Act.

1959 Hiram Fong, first Chinese American to be elected to U.S. Senate. (Hawaii)

1959	Daniel Inouye, first Japanese American to be elected to the United States Congress as Representative from Hawaii. He was reelected to his House seat in 1960 and elected to the United States Senate in 1962.
1960	U.S. Chinese population 237,292, of which 95,000 are in California.
1962	Daniel Inouye became the first Japanese American elected to the United States Senate.
1964	Mrs. Patsy T. Mink, the first Japanese American woman elected to the United States Congress. Reelected in 1968.
1965	Immigration Revision Law permits increase in Chinese immigration from Hong Kong, Taiwan, S.E. Asia and Latin America.
1967	National J.A.C.L. legal counsel William Marutani prepared an amicus brief on behalf of the J.A.C.L. on the anti-miscengenation laws in 17 states. Declared unconstitutional in June of 1967.
1969	Ad-hoc committee of the J.A.C.L. began campaigning for the repeal of Sub-Title II, 1950 McCarran Act.
1970	Hiram Fong reelected senator from Hawaii.
1971	September. Sub-Title II, McCarran Act, repealed by Congress.

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AUGUR, HELEN	Tall Ships to Cathay: The story of American Clipper Ships, and of Seth Low, who sailed to fortune and romance in the China trade.
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BLOODWORTH, DENNIS	Chinese Looking Glass
BOSWORTH, ALLAN R.	The Lovely World of Richi-san: Episodes of the friendship of a Navy Public Relations Officer, in a large Japanese family, are related in a warm, lively manner.
BROWN, WALLACE I.	The Endless Hours: My 2½ Years as a Prisoner of Chinese Communists: Record of an American flyer held prisoner by Chinese Communists gives an underlying picture of Communist methods. Fine objective account.
BUCK, PEARL S.	My Several Worlds: A moving autobiography of Pearl Buck in which she relates her experiences and feelings about China better than in any of her novels except The Good Earth.
CHANG, DIANA	Frontiers of Love: Group of Eurasions have survived occupation of Japanese in Shanghai.
CHU, DANIEL	Passage to the Golden Gate. A history of the Chinese in America to 1910.
CREEL, H.G.	Chinese Thought: From Confucious to Mao Tse-Tung: Highly readable, lucid introduction to Chinese thought...with but a fraction of text devoted to modern times.
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DURAS, MARGUERITE	Hiroshima, MonAmour: Complete script of films plus a synopsis and notes on script.
ERNEST, EARLE	3 Japanese Plays from Traditional Theaters Kabuki Theater - N.Y.: Brief introduction to Noh, Doll, and Kabuki, each followed by English version of the plays, complete with stage directions. Three-act performances at U. of Hawaii: editor says "Intent throughout -- to make the plays viable in English."

GORDAN, ERNEST	Through the Valley of the Kwai: When a young captain, the author, was captured by the Japanese in World War II, he was among the prisoners forced to build the bridge over the River Kwai. An inspiring tale of what faith and kindness can accomplish.
HALL, ROBERT B.J.	Japan, Industrial Power of Asia: A brief comprehensive analysis of Japan and its position in the world by a competent geographer who spent several years living and studying in Japan.
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